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Presented
in Memory of the late
Mr. Balacrushna Venayek Wassooden
by his family.
to
Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society.

THE
ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BOMBAY
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Date. June 1964.

THE

CABINET OF HISTORY.

CONDUCTED BY THE

REV. DIONYSIUS LARDNER, LL.D. F.R.S. L.& E.

M.R.I.A. F.L.S. F.Z.S. Hon.F.C.P.S. M.Ast.S. &c. &c.

ASSISTED BY

EMINENT LITERARY MEN.

OUTLINES OF HISTORY.

BY

THOMAS KEIGHTLEY.

A NEW EDITION.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

THE object of the writer of the present volume has been to give a correct, and, as far as the limits would permit, a comprehensive epitome of the history of the world, which accuracy of narration and chronology would render valuable as a book of reference, and in which general views and reflections would remove the dryness inseparable from a mere enumeration of facts. As a portion of a Cyclopædia, it is to the historical volumes what in an atlas the map of the world is to those which follow it, representing in connection what they exhibit isolated, and displaying the relative proportions and importance of the several parts. Its chief utility will be, doubtless, as a book of reference for those who are already versed in history; yet it is hoped that even the tyro who studies it with attention will find himself, at the termination of his labour, ignorant of few of the great characters and events which occur in the history of the world.

Where brevity was a matter of such paramount importance, few will expect the graces of style; and it will, perhaps, be conceded, that the repetition of the same figures and modes of speech was almost unavoidable where like events so frequently occurred.

For the plan of dividing the last two parts into periods, the author is indebted to the celebrated Müller, and has adopted several of the divisions employed by

him in his Universal History. That work (the inaccuracies of which are to be regretted), with those of Schlosser, Gibbon, Hallam, and others, has been used in addition to contemporary and national histories in the composition of these Outlines. The Oriental portion has been chiefly derived from the works of Gibbon, Malcolm, and Hammer.

To prevent any misconception, the reader is requested to bear in mind that the present is a volume of *political history*, mankind being regarded in it only as divided into great societies; and that, consequently, when true or false religions are spoken of, it is only in their political relations that they are viewed. In a work of this kind, theological discussion would have been altogether irrelevant and out of place.

The history of any country or people may be read consecutively by consulting the index, where, under its name, will be found reference to the pages where it is mentioned. The wars and political relations of two countries will be best known by reading the corresponding parts of the history of each.

Three tables are subjoined. The first contains the royal dynasties of the principal nations; and as it was deemed needless to occupy space with insignificant names, those of the early monarchs of some of the less important states have been omitted, and the series begin about the eleventh century. The two last tables are designed to illustrate the condition and progress of the human mind in the different periods of the history of the world.

This new Edition has been corrected and improved considerably.

T. K.

London, May, 1. 1836.

CONTENTS.

PART I.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

Of the Earth and its Physical Changes, 1. Of Man, 3. Original Seat of Man, 4. Original State of Man, 5. Æthiopians, 7. Chinese, 8. India, 10.

CHAP. II.

ANCIENT STATES OF CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA.

Bactria, 12. Babylon and Assyria, 13. Egypt, 14. Phœnicia, 16. Philistines — Arabia, 17. Israelites, 18. Medes and Persians, 23.

CHAP. III.

GREECE.

Early State of Greece, 29. Dorian Migration, 32. Sparta, 33. Athens, 35.

CHAP. IV.

GREECE TO HER SUBVERSION BY THE MACEDONIANS.

Persian War, 38. Peloponnesian War, 41. Lacedæmonian Dominion, 44. Theban Dominion, 45. Philip of Macedon, 47.

CHAP. V.

ALEXANDER AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

Alexander, 49. Division of Alexander's Dominions, 51. Macedon, 53. Greece, 54. Thrace — Bithynia, 55. Pergamus — Pontus, 56. Armenia — Syria. 57. Judea, 58. Parthia, 59. Egypt, 60. Carthage, 61.

CHAP. VI.

ROME TILL THE PUNIC WARS.

Rome under Kings, 63. Tuscans — War with Porsenna, 67. Dictator — Secession — Tribunes, 69. Spurius Cassius, and the Agrarian Law, 71. The Decemvirs and the Twelve Tables, 72. Spurius Mælius, 74. Wars anterior to the Gallic Invasion, 75. Gauls — Capture of Rome, 77. Rebuilding of the City — Manlius, 78. Licinian Rogations, 79. Samnite War, 81. Latin War, 82. War with Pyrrhus, 83.

CHAP. VII.

ROME TILL THE TIME OF THE GRACCHI.

First Punic War, 84. Illyrian War — Gallic War — Second Punic War, 86. Macedonian and Syrian Wars, 88. Conquest of Macedon, 89. Third Punic War, 90. Achæan War, 91. Spanish Wars, 92.

CHAP. VIII.

ROME TILL THE END OF THE REPUBLIC.

The Graechi, 93. Jugurthine War — Cimbric War, 96. State of Rome — Social or Marsian War, 97. Mithridatic and Civil Wars, 98. From the Death of Sulla to that of Mithridates, 102. Catiline's Conspiracy — The Gallic War of Cæsar, 105. Civil War of Cæsar and Pompeius, 109. Events till the Death of Cæsar, 111. Civil War with Brutus and Cassius, 112. War between Octavianus and Antonius, 114.

CHAP. IX.

ROME AN EMPIRE.

Emperors of the Cæsarian Family, 116. Emperors chosen by the Army, 119. Flavian Family, 120. Good Emperors, 122. From Commodus to Diocletian, 124. Change in the Form of Government, 130. Corruption of Christianity, 133.

CHAP. X.

DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.

Successors of Constantine, 136. The Huns, 140. Wars with the Goths, 141. Genseric and Attila, 145. Fall of the Western Empire, 147.

PART II.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

CHAP. I.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BARBARIANS IN THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

Gotho-Germans — East-Goths in Italy, 152. Lombards in Italy, 155. Burgundians, 156. Allemanni — Franks, 157. Anglo-Saxons, 160. West-Goths in Spain — Byzantine Empire, 161. Persia, 166.

CHAP. II.

THE TIMES OF MOHAMMED AND THE FIRST KHALIFS.

Mohammed, 168. First Khalifs, 173. Conquest of Syria, 174. Conquest of Persia, 176. Conquest of Egypt, 177. Invasion of Africa, 178. Ommiyades — Conquest of Africa, 179. Conquest of Spain, 180. Invasion of France by the Arabs, 181. France, 182. Lombards — Constantinople, 183. Germany, 184. England, 185.

CHAP. III.

THE TIMES OF CHARLEMAGNE AND HAROON-ER-RASHEED.

Italy, 185. Empire of Charlemagne, 187. Feudal System, 189. England — Constantinople, 191. Abbasside Khalifs, 192.

CHAP. IV.

DISSOLUTION OF THE GREAT EMPIRES OF THE EAST AND WEST.

Empire of Charlemagne, 196. Hungarians, 198. Northmen, 199. France, 201. Germany — House of Saxony, 202. Italy, 204. England, 206. Russia, 207. Constantinople, 208. Decline of the Arabian Empire — Africa, 210. Decline of the Arabian Empire — Asia, 211. Causes of the Decline of the Power of the Khalifs, 213. Gasnevides — Spain, 215.

CHAP. V.

INCREASE OF THE PAPAL POWER.

Italy — Normans, 217. Italy — Popes, 221. Italy — Lombard Cities — Germany — House of Franconia, 225. France, 226. England, 227. Spain — Constantinople, 229. Seljookians, 230. First Crusade, 233.

CHAP. VI.

THE PAPAL POWER AT ITS GREATEST HEIGHT.

Italy — Popes, 235. Italy — Lombard Cities, 240. Italy — Naples and Sicily — Germany — Swabian Line, 241. France, 245. England — Plantagenets, 247. Ireland, 250. Spain — Portugal, 251. Almohades — Persia, 252. Saladin, 253. Mamelukes — Constantinople, 254. Crusades, 255. Mongols — Chingis Khan, 260. End of the Khalifat at Bagdad, 261.

CHAP. VII.

DECLINE OF THE PAPAL POWER, AND FORMATION OF GREAT MONARCHIES.

Italy — Popes, 262. Italy — Republics, 267. Italy — Naples and Sicily, 270. Germany, 273. Switzerland, 275. France, 277. England — Plantagenets, 283. Wars between France and England, 289. Scotland, 295. Scandinavia, 299. Poland, 300. Hungary, 301. Ottomans, 302. Tartars — Timoor, 305. Spain, 307. Portugal, 310. Discovery of America, 311.

PART III.

MODERN HISTORY.

CHAP. I.

VIEW OF THE STATE OF EUROPE.

England — France, 315. Germany — Russia, Poland, Scandinavia — Switzerland and Savoy, 316. Italy, 317. League of Cambray, 318. Spain and Portugal — Turkey, 319. Persia, 320.

CHAP. II.

TIMES OF CHARLES V.

Accession of Charles V., 322. Reformation, 323. Wars of Charles V. and Francis I., 324. Affairs of Germany, 328. Renewed War with France, 329. Affairs of Germany, 331. England — Spain and Portugal, 334. Italy, 335. Denmark and Sweden, 337. Turkey, 338.

CHAP. III.

TIMES OF PHILIP II.

State of Europe at Philip's Accession, 339. France, 340. Netherlands, 346. England, 352. Portugal, 353. Germany — Poland, 355. Italy, 357. Turkey, 358.

CHAP. IV.

TIMES OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Germany, 359. France, 366. Spain, 368. Portugal — Italy, 369. England — The Civil War, 370. Holland, 372. Russia — Turkey and Persia, 373.

CHAP. V.

TIMES OF LOUIS XI

France to the Peace of the Pyrenees, 374. England to the Restoration, 375. Wars till the Peace of Nimeguen, 376. England to the Revolution, 380. Wars to the Peace of Ryswic.., 382. England — Spanish Succession, 384. North of Europe — Peter the Great — Charles XII., 390. England, 392.

CHAP. VI.

PERIOD OF COMPARATIVE REPOSE.

England — Quadruple Alliance, 393. Russia — Turkish Wars, 396. Persia — Nadir Shah, 397.

CHAP. VII.

TIMES OF FREDERIC II.

Silesian Wars, 398. England, 404. Russia, 404. Seven Years' War, 405. Suppression of the Jesuits, 408. First Partition of Poland, 409. Turkish War, 410. American War, 411. India, 415. Persia, 419.

CHAP. VIII.

TIMES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND EMPIRE.

State of Europe, 420. French Revolution, 423. Europe to the Peace of Campo Formio, 425. Affairs to the Assumption of the chief Power by Bonaparte, 427. Affairs till the Peace of Amiens, 429. Affairs of Europe to the Treaty of Tilsit, 430. Affairs to the Treaty of Vienna, 432. Progress of the Peninsular War, 434. Invasion of Russia, and Fall of Napoleon, 435.

TABULAR VIEW OF ROYAL DYNASTIES, 441.

TABULAR VIEW OF THE STATE OF LITERATURE AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, 449.

INDEX, 457.

OUTLINES OF HISTORY.

PART I.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

Of the Earth and its Physical Changes.

THE history of man is distinct from, but connected with, that of the earth, his appointed abode. The mightiest revolutions of the latter have taken place, for the most part, in a time anterior to the first appearance of man on its surface; and laws and principles of nature were at that period in operation which have since either totally ceased, or have changed their character. Yet in a history of the origin and progress of the human race, that of the earth cannot be passed over in perfect silence. Its changes and periods form a necessary part of the great chain of causes and effects established and conducted by the mighty Being whose power gave existence to all. Modesty and diffidence should be the guides of those who seek to penetrate into the ages antecedent to man and his works.

The only sources from which we can expect to derive the history of the earth are, the Mosaic records, and the examination, in different countries, of its present surface, and the various strata that compose it. The Pentateuch, however, descends not into particulars: the object of the inspired lawgiver was to impress on the minds of his people the great and important truth

which was to form the distinguishing characteristic of their religion,—namely, the unity of the Deity; that one sole and mighty Being had given existence to all that was, had shared his power with none, and was alone to be worshipped. The legislator, accordingly, did not depart too far from established opinions, nor seek to introduce truths incomprehensible to those whom he addressed; yet the account he gives of the gradual progress of creation sufficiently corresponds with that which we now read out of the great book of nature. But all attempts to extract a history of the earth and its revolutions from the Bible have failed, and the theories only remain as monuments of the genius of their constructors. Man, not his abode, is the subject of the sacred Scriptures; and we may admire but not question the fact of the people of Israel, though divinely taught in things relating to mind, being left in things relating to matter in equal ignorance with less favoured nations.

The other source of knowledge respecting the history of the earth has, during the last 100 years, been followed with continued and vigorous perseverance by men of intellectual powers of the highest order; and from their discoveries, especially those of the distinguished Cuvier, we learn the following facts respecting the formation and the revolutions of the earth.

To the origin of the solid nucleus of the earth no date can be assigned. Water invested it; and the acotyledonous plants, and the testaceous tribes of fish, were the commencement of vegetable and animal life. A violent revolution of nature annihilated these incipient creations, and their remains combined with other substances to increase the stone of the earth. In the various successive periods appeared the mollusca, the fishes, the amphibious animals, all of gigantic size; and all after living their appointed period were destroyed, and their remains employed as the materials of additional surface for the advancing earth. The mammalia of the waters, sea-horses, sea-lions, whales, and their whole kindred,

formed the next step of the progression. The violent motions and agitations of the waves destroyed these also, that they might add their huge carcasses to the inanimate surface of the earth, which now attained that state in which it sent up vegetation adapted for the support of animals of the land. Nature now put forth her strength in the production of the monstrous megatheria, mastodons and mammoths, whose remains excite our wonder and our curiosity. This race, too, after having possessed the earth for an indefinite period, saw its appointed end come: the waters rose once more, and involved them, like their predecessors, in the clay, sand, and gravel, which they swept along; but no rocky stratum was, as with the former generations, the result: and the sandstone, gypsum, clay, and other substances, in which the remains of this creation are found, occur only in spaces of limited extent. The violent revolutions of the earth were now at an end; the races of animals, such as at present occupy its surface, appeared; and, last of all, Man, the perfection of nature's works, entered on the scene of his future destinies. But the violent powers of nature had not yet ceased to operate; and tradition retains the recollection of at least one great destruction of animal life by water.

Of Man.

We enter not here into the question of the different races of mankind, and the origin of the surprising differences we find among the members of the same species. We shall not enquire whether the lowest class in point of intellect and form, the Negro, approaching in structure to the ape, be the original type of man, and have thence, by culture and climate, refined to the beauty and mental powers of the European; or whether the reverse be the truth, and climate and want of culture have brought man down from his lofty state, and approximated him to the brute. We confine ourselves to the fact, that there are different races of our species

occupying the various portions of the earth, and distinguished from each other in corporeal structure and in mental development. These numerous varieties are, by the ablest investigators, reduced to three principal stems, viz. the Caucasian or Europeo-Arabic, the Mongol, and the Negro or Æthiopic. The first contains the people of Asia, north and south of the great mountain range of Caucasus and its continuation to the Ganges, of Europe, and of Northern Africa; the second, the people of Eastern Asia and of America; the third, the tribes with woolly hair and sable skin that people the African continent. Yet many tribes can with difficulty be brought under any one of these divisions: the endless variety of Nature is as apparent in the human race as in the animal and vegetable kingdoms.

Original Seat of Man.

It is, perhaps, a useless enquiry to search after the region in which man was first placed, the paradise of his first days of innocence and happiness. The only historic clew we possess are the names of the four rivers, said in the Hebrew records to have watered the land in which the progenitors of the human race dwelt. But as no four rivers can be found on the present surface of the earth agreeing in all points with those mentioned by Moses, our safest course is to confine ourselves to the enquiry after the region where those who escaped the last great inundation which has overwhelmed the earth, resumed their destined course of life and occupation.

The general opinion, founded on the literal interpretation of Scripture, has long been, that at the time of the flood all mankind perished, save Noah and his family. Some, however, contend, that the words of the inspired writer are not to be taken so strictly, and that as his information was destined for a particular portion of mankind, it may have been only intended to instruct them in the history of the race to which they belonged, while that of other races may have been passed over in

silence. Hence they would infer that we are not precluded by the Mosaic writings from supposing, that at the time of the great inundation other portions of mankind may have saved themselves in different manners and places. They therefore look to the higher regions of the earth, and find three elevated ranges in the neighbourhood of the three distinct stems into which we find mankind divided. The lofty range extending from the Black Sea to the east of India has been at all times regarded as being, either itself or the lands south of it, the original seat of the Caucasian race. Still more east, beyond Tibet and the desert of Cobi, rises another range, regarded as the original seat of the Mongol race which dwells around it: and the Mountains of the Moon and their branches are thought to point out the primitive abodes of the Negro race. America, it is probable, was not, till long after, adapted for the abode of man.

These, however, are all questions of curiosity rather than of historical importance. At the dawn of all history we find the various races of mankind distinct, and no history informs us of the origin of the differences. We have therefore only to consider them in their separate states, or as intermingled with and affecting each other.

Original State of Man.

Another point which has given occasion to a good deal of ingenious conjecture, is the original state of mankind. Philosophers, on surveying the human race in its different situations, have traced out four distinct states, — those of the mere fruit and plant-eater, the hunter, the herdsman, and the cultivator, — and have generally inferred that man has progressively passed through all these states, commencing at the lowest. Yet this is still but mere conjecture, unsupported by any historic evidence. No tribe has ever yet been found to civilise itself; instruction and improvement always come to it from abroad; and experience would rather lead to the inference, that the savage is a degeneration from the

civilised life. In the very earliest history, that of the Bible, we find the pastoral and agricultural life co-existing almost from the commencement of the world; at all periods we find man possessed of the useful and necessary arts, the master of flocks and herds, the employer of the spade, the plough, and the sickle. It is in vain we seek for commencement, — all is progress. In imagination, we may conceive a time, when the human race was in the lowest degree of culture; but, on enquiry, we every where meet the arts, meet men collected into societies, meet property, legislation, and government.

It may perhaps be collected from the testimony of the sacred Scriptures, and from the deductions of philosophy, that man has always existed in society, and that the first societies were families, the first form of government patriarchal: and the following may be stated as the most probable hypothesis; namely, that man commenced his existence in the social state under the mild and gentle form of government denominated patriarchal; that his first nourishment was the fruits of trees and plants, which ripened in abundance for the supply of his wants in some temperate and fertile region of the earth, possibly that at the south of Caucasus, or where now extends the paradisal vale of Cashmeer; that gradually he became a keeper of flocks and herds, and a cultivator of corn; that families spread and combined; and that from their union arose monarchies, the most ancient form of extended civil government.

It is in this last state that we propose to consider mankind, and to trace the great and important events that have taken place among the various stems and branches of the human race; to show how, beneath the guiding energy of the Creator and Ruler, the great machine of human society has proceeded on its way, at times advancing, at times apparently retrograding, in the path of perfection and happiness. And the final result of our view of the deeds, and destinies of man will, we trust, be a firm conviction in the mind of every reader that private and public felicity are the result

alone of good education, wise laws, and just government, and that all power which is not based on equity is unstable and transient.

It is to the Caucasian race that the history of the world must mainly confine itself, for with that race has originated almost all that ennobles and dignifies mankind: it is the chief depository of literature, and the great constructor of philosophical, political, and religious systems. We shall restrict ourselves, therefore, chiefly to the history of that race, briefly premising views of the state and character of the Æthiopians, the Mongols, and that portion of the Caucasian race named the Indians.

Æthiopians.

We have already observed, that under this name are included all the inhabitants of Africa whose bodily conformation does not prove them to be of the Caucasian race. The indefiniteness of the term *Æthiopian* employed by the Greeks, and applied by them to all people of a dark complexion, and the similar indefiniteness of the Hebrew *Cush*, prevent our being able positively to say whether the obscure traditions of the Æthiopian power extending along the Mediterranean to the straits of Gades, and of that people having, under their king Tearcho, made themselves so formidable to the inhabitants of the coasts of the Ægean, are to be understood of a purely Negro empire, or of, what is much more probable, a state like that of Egypt, where the lower orders of society were of Negro, the higher and dominant classes of Caucasian race. Within the historic period of both ancient and modern times, the Æthiopian race only appears as furnishing slaves for the service of the Caucasian, to whom it has been always as inferior in mental power as in bodily configuration. Though modern travel has discovered within the torrid wastes of Africa large communities ruled over by Negro princes, and a knowledge of many of the useful arts, yet civilisation and policy have never reared their heads in the ungenial

clime. As literature has never been theirs, whatever revolutions may have taken place among them are buried in oblivion, and they claim no station of eminence in the history of the world.

The Chinese.

The Mongols stand far higher in the scale of intellect and in importance than the Æthiopians. As we proceed, we shall find them striking terror into Europe by their arms and their numbers. One nation of this race, the Chinese, has long been an object of curiosity to the western world, from its extent of empire and the singularity of its social institutions.

The Chinese empire occupies an extent of surface equal to that of all Europe, containing within it every variety of soil and climate, and natural production; thus rendering it in itself perfectly independent of all foreign aid. In its social institutions it has presented through all periods a model of the primitive form of government, the patriarchal, and an exemplification of the evil of continuing it beyond its just and necessary period. In China all is at a stand-still; succeeding ages add not to the knowledge of those that have gone before; no one must presume to be wiser than his fathers: around the Son of Heaven, as they designate their emperor, assemble the learned of the land as his council; so in the provinces the learned in their several degrees around the governor; and laws and rules are passed from the highest down to the lowest, to be by them given to the people. Every, even the most minute, circumstance of common life is regulated by law. It matters not, for example, what may be the wealth of an individual, he must wear the dress and build his house after the mode prescribed by ancient regulations. In China every thing bears the stamp of antiquity: immovableness seems to be characteristic of the nation; every implement retains its primitive rude form; every invention has stopped at the first step. The gradual progress towards perfection of the

Caucasian race is unknown in China; the plough is still drawn by men; the written characters of their monosyllabic language stand for ideas, not for simple sounds; and the laborious task of learning to read occupies the time that might be employed in the acquisition of valuable knowledge. Literature has been at all periods cultivated by a nation where learning (such as it is) is the only road to honour and dignity, and books beginning with the five *Kings* of Con-fu-tsee, which equal the four Vedas of India in the honour in which they are held, have at all times been common in this empire. A marked feature in the Chinese character is the absence of imagination: all is the product of cold reason. The *Kings* speak not of a God, and present no system of religion: every thing of that nature in China came from India.

The uncertain history of China ascends to about 2500 years before the Christian æra; the certain history commences about eight centuries before Christ. According to Chinese tradition, the founders of the state, a hundred families in number, descended from the mountains of Kulcum, on the lake of Khukhunor, north-west of China; and hence the middle provinces of Chensee, Leong, Honan, &c. were the first seats of their cultivation. These provinces are in the same climate as Greece and Italy. Twenty-two dynasties of princes are enumerated as having governed China to the present day, the actual emperor being the fifth monarch of the twenty-second or Tai Tsin dynasty. Of these dynasties, one of the most remarkable is the Song, which ruled over the southern empire at the time China was divided into two, and fell beneath the arms of the Yver or mingled nomadic tribes, led to conquest by the descendants of Chingis Khan. This line, which reigned from A.D. 960 to 1280, distinguished itself by the encouragement of the arts and sciences; it cultivated relations with Japan, fostered trade and commerce, and in all things went contrary to the established maxims of Chinese policy, and while it lasted the empire bloomed beneath its sway; but the hordes of the desert levelled its glories, and its fate has

been ever since held up as an awful warning to those who venture to depart even a hair's breadth from the ancient manners. At an earlier period, under the dynasty of Tsin (248—206 B.C.), China first received religion from India; but the missionaries were not artful or prudent enough to adapt it to Chinese maxims of state, and they were unsuccessful in the contest between them and the learned. At a later period, when the Buddhism of India had become the Lamaism of Tibet, it entered China as the religion of Foë, and by the worldly prudence of its bonzes or priests, succeeded in gaining a favourable reception and becoming the religion of the state. Every thing that hopes for success in this country must fall in with the national character. China has often been overcome, and its reigning dynasty changed; but the manners and institutions of China remain unaltered, as different from those of the Caucasian race as the features of the Chinese face are from those of the European.

India.

From the Chinese, a nation of cold reason, almost no religion, monosyllabic unharmonious language, and literature full of events and valuable matter, we pass to their neighbours of India, whom every thing but colour indicates to belong to the same family with the Europeans. Here we find glowing fancy, and in Brahmanism a luxuriant system of religion, a majestic and richly inflected language, and a literature full to exuberance of the highest poetry. But India has no history or chronology of its own, and it is in the time of the Persian kings that it first appears in the history of the world. Yet the testimony of antiquity, its proximity to the original land of the Caucasian race, and the primitive character of its social institutions, prove it to be one of the most ancient nations of the earth.

In India, religion and priestly influence have effected what law and tradition have produced in China—the absolute prostration of the intellect of the nation. The

system of castes sets a bar to all ambition and to all energy. No development of mind can take place where every man's station in life is immutably marked out for him. The nation presents at the present day the same spectacle which excited the wonder of the Greeks who accompanied Alexander; an immense, gentle, and peaceful population; abundance of wealth; all the useful, necessary, and ornamental arts of life; a manifold, intricate system of religion, abounding in rites and ceremonies, many of them of the most lascivious character.

Like China, India is an instance of the fatal effect of checking the free development of mind: here, too, every thing is stationary. The love of country is a feeling unknown to the breast of the inhabitants, and India has been at all periods the easy prey of every invader whom its wealth attracted. Omitting the fabulous expeditions of Sesostris and Semiramis, the earliest account we have of a conquest of any part of this country is of that by Cyrus and Darius I., kings of Persia; next Alexander the Great with ease overthrew all that opposed him, and, but for the refusal of his troops, would have planted his standards on the banks of the Ganges. Seleucus Nicator ruled over the provinces conquered by Alexander, reached in conquest the banks of the Jumnah, and subdued a large portion of Bengal. When the feeble successors of Seleucus had lost their power over other subject nations, their vicegerents were still obeyed during a period of 60 years by a great part of India. A hundred and twenty years after the death of Alexander, Antiochus the Great invaded and conquered a considerable portion of India; and when he was overcome by the Romans, all his possessions west of the Indus fell to Euthydemus, the Grecian sovereign of Bactria, and India cheerfully obeyed him. He was unable to effect the succession of his son Demetrius in Bactria; but over the Indian provinces that prince reigned without opposition. Eucratides, the fifth of the Græco-Bactrian kings, re-united to Bactria the Indian possessions, and every succeeding reigning line in Persia had dominions in India, till it was eventually

overrun and occupied by Mohammedan conquerors. For the last thousand years it has been the prey of every foreign spoiler. Thus India seems destined never to enjoy national independence: her countless millions doomed for ever to bow beneath a foreign sceptre, she stands an instructive monument of the evils resulting from fettered intellect and priestly dominion.

CHAP. II.

THE ANCIENT STATES OF CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA.

Bactria.

According to the traditions of hoary antiquity preserved in the sacred books of the Parsees, and in the Shah Nameh, the immortal poem of Ferdoosee, there existed in the most remote ages, with sacerdotal institutions akin to those of India, a mighty and extensive empire in Bactria or Eastern Persia. Grecian writers confirm this account, and it is farther proved by the route of the Caucasian race, who, in their progress along the mountains, must have been attracted by these fertile regions, abounding in every production, protected by lofty impassable mountains to the north, and bordering on the realms of India and Babylonia. The branch of the Caucasian stem, called the Indo-Persian race, spread over Iran, the country between Babylonia and India. Its chief seat was Bactria. Here, according to Persian tradition, reigned Keiumurs, the first of men, or of kings, and his descendants, till Jemsheed was overthrown by the Aramæan Zohak. The system of religion named from Zoroaster prevailed in Bactria, and the sacerdotal caste stood in rights and privileges nearly on a par with the Bramins of India, who, probably, possessed originally a similar institution. The idolatrous Aramæan priesthood united itself with that of Bactria; but when the Aramæan or Babylonian dominion sank, and the

Iranian revived in the person of Feridoon, the old religion recovered its dominion. Changes of dynasty affected it not; it passed to Medes and Persians, and still was flourishing when the disciples of Mohammed extinguished it in blood; and it yet lingers among the Parsees of India, the descendants of those who sought refuge in that country from persecution. But the simple religion of Zoroaster, which worshipped under the emblem of light and fire the Author of life and happiness, had not the debasing effects of the intricate idolatry and metaphysics of India; and if Iran fell beneath foreign conquerors, the fault was not in her system of religion.

Babylon and Assyria.

We now begin to tread on more solid ground, for in the earliest portion of the far most credible ancient history, that of the Hebrews, we observe a recognition of the empires of Babylon and Assyria. From them, too, we may infer, that Babylon was the more ancient, for the city of that name is mentioned at a time while the Hebrews were still in the nomadic state. We hear not till long after of Nineveh, the Assyrian capital on the Tigris.

The Babylonians dwelt on the Tigris and the Lower Euphrates, and their industry had made their land the garden of Asia. They were a peaceful people, as is shown by their manufactures and their provisions for watering their lands. Herodotus describes them as a luxurious trafficking people, fond of splendid dress and ornaments. Various dynasties of kings of the surrounding nations are related to have ruled in Babylon. This wealthy state must have been at all times exposed to the incursions of the nomadic tribes that surrounded it, and sometimes conquered by them. The city is stated to have been built in the most remote ages by the god Bel, and to have been enlarged and adorned by Semiramis, probably also a mythic personage. In the historic period we find it farther improved and adorned by Nebuchadnezzar and the queen Nitocris. The reign of Nebu-

chadnezzar was the most brilliant period of Babylon. He ruled from the foot of Caucasus to the deserts of Libya. Judæa, Phœnicia, Egypt, all the tribes of the desert, did nomage to his power. But the glory was transient: in the reign of his son the Babylonian dominion sank, never to rise, beneath the arms of the Medes and Persians.

The Assyrian empire on the Tigris and the Upper Euphrates rose much later than the Babylonian, which it subdued, but which under the father of Nebuchadnezzar cast off the yoke, and attained the power we have just described. Of the Assyrian history little is known.

A caste of priests named Chaldeans, distinguished for their knowledge of the order and courses of the heavenly bodies, the objects of Babylonian worship, was to be found here; but the early establishment of despotism permitted not a division of the people into any other castes. These Chaldeans were divided into several orders under a head appointed by the king. Birth was not a necessary qualification for admittance into their body. We find (as in the case of Daniel) Jews placed in the highest rank among them. They derived their support from lands assigned to them. The nature of the occupations of the Babylonians made a race of men of importance, who pretended to a knowledge of the ways of the gods, who measured the land, marked the seasons, and announced the hours of good and evil fortune: yet almost all their boasted wisdom was mere jugglery and deceit.

*Egypt.**

The valley watered by the Nile, and inclosed between the desert on the west, and barren mountains on the east, was the seat of one of the earliest and most renowned empires of which we have any record remaining. A branch of the Caucasian race, it would appear, crossed the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. It mastered the Æthiopians whom it met, and founded an empire on the

* Egypt, though properly in Africa, has been included in this chapter, to avoid needless subdivision.

system of castes in Nubia; then advanced with the stream, and established that of Upper Egypt; and, lastly, spread over Lower Egypt and the Delta now formed by the Nile. But this was long anterior to the commencement of history. So early as the days of Abraham, Lower Egypt was the seat of a rich, flourishing, and civilised state.

The turn of mind of this branch of the Caucasian stem was similar to that of the branch which established itself in India. Hence some have needlessly supposed that one country was colonised by the other. Here, as in India, the priestly caste enjoyed high power and privileges. They were the depositaries of all arts and sciences; they not only were the directors of the employments of life, but possessed the awful office of judges of the dead, who were brought before their tribunal ere consigned to the tomb; and by numerous practices and ceremonies they for ever kept the idea and the fear of death before the eyes of the people. Their own religious system, known to the initiated alone, was perfectly simple: what they taught the people in symbol and figure was complex, obscene, and degrading. Independence was secured to the sacerdotal order by the immunity of their lands from imposts.

Yet priestly sway never attained the same height here as in India. Egypt was a conquered country, and numerous tribes of nomades and other classes, who never completely amalgamated with the conquerors, roamed the land, sometimes independent, sometimes obedient. Hence the king was in a great measure independent of the priests. The history of Joseph informs us, that the king had a fifth of the produce of the land, and, as in the case of this minister, could appoint a stranger and an uninitiated person to the highest office of the state, and give him in marriage the daughter of the high-priest. We therefore read of internal tumults and foreign wars, the fabulous expeditions of Sesostris, the real campaigns against Judæa and more distant powers. Arabian and Nubian monarchs have ruled over Egypt; it fell before the Babylonian, Persian,

Grecian, and Roman power, yet the castes, as in India, subsisted through every shock.

Where the system of castes prevails, the inferior castes are always of a peaceful, industrious character. Each person's walk of life being marked out for him, he pursues it with the regularity and mechanism of mere matter. All we learn of ancient Egypt corresponds with this principle: the narrowness and fertility of the land caused an excessive population; agriculture could employ but a small portion of the people; the sedentary arts were therefore cultivated to a great extent, and the division of labour was carried almost beyond any thing similar in modern times. The accounts we have of emigrations from Egypt are obscure, and many of them not very credible. The plan devised for preventing the evils of over-populousness was, to accustom the lower orders to a spare diet, and employ them on the construction of huge edifices, destined for tombs or the temples of religion. Hence the pyramids and excavated temples which still excite the wonder of the world, and prove what may be effected by the aid of the simplest machinery, with time, numbers, and perseverance.

The knowledge of the Egyptians has been much over-rated. The great trait of a sacerdotal period is every where to be discerned. Every thing advanced to a certain point of perfection; there stopped, never to advance, but rather to recede. It is remarked, that in design and execution the more ancient monuments exceed the later.

Phœnicia.

A portion of the Aramæan race was settled on the Persian Gulf. It was given to trade and commerce, and settled a colony on the coast of Syria. These colonists were named the Phœnicians; their chief city was Sidon, and they afterwards built Tyre on an island near the coast. Their manufactures, especially of glass, were celebrated from the most ancient times. While surrounded by nomadic tribes they seem to have made

little advances in wealth and power, though they had extended their settlements to some distance inland. But when the Israelites took possession of Canaan, and applied themselves to agriculture, the trade of the Phœnicians rapidly increased; their ships visited the isles and coasts of the Ægean, and the distant ports of Italy and Spain. Numerous colonies, of which Carthage was chief, were established by them. In their impregnable island-city they could bid defiance to the might of Israel, Egypt, and Babylon. Luxury flourished in this city, whose "merchants were princes:" their religion was bloody and cruel, their form of government monarchical.

Philistines.

This people, celebrated for their wars with the Israelites, dwelt on a small strip of sea-coast south of the Tyrians. They were originally, it is thought, a colony from Egypt. They possessed five cities under the government of five princes, and confederated together for mutual defence. Trade and piracy were their chief means of subsistence. Their long and obstinate resistance against the arms of the Israelites testifies their valour and love of independence. A seafaring people, the chief object of their worship was a sea-god, Dagon.

Arabia.

From the earliest dawn of history the Arabs have led the nomadic life, to which the nature of their country has destined them. The numerous tribes, under the government of their sheikhs and emirs, roam the desert apart—now in friendship, now in hostility. The camel and the horse are their companions and support. The strangers who penetrate their wilds have always been regarded as lawful prizes. Under the various names of Edomites, Ishmaelites, Midianites, &c. we find their tribes in friendly or hostile relations with the nation of Israel, with whom many of them acknow-

ledged a kindred. Their religious worship was chiefly directed to the heavenly bodies.

Israelites.

At a very remote period of antiquity, when the sacerdotal caste in Babylonia had begun to spread idolatry even among the nomadic tribes of the land, a man, named Abraham, distinguished by wealth, wisdom, and probity, in obedience to the commands of the Deity, quitted the land of his fathers, and journeyed with his family and his herds towards the land of Canaan. His faith in the only God, and his obedience to his will, were here rewarded by increasing wealth and numbers. His son and grandson continued the same nomadic life in Palestine which Abraham and his fathers had led. By a surprising turn of fortune, one of the sons of Jacob, the grandson of Abraham, became vizier to the king of Egypt: he brought his father and family to that country, and a district in the north-east of Egypt was assigned to them by the king for the sustenance of themselves and their flocks and herds.

During 430 years their numbers increased exceedingly. A new dynasty now filled the Egyptian throne, and they feared the power of a numerous people attached to the former line, and dwelling in the key of the land towards Asia. They sought, therefore, to change their mode of life, and by imposing heavy tasks upon them to check their increase, and gradually to wear them out.

During this period of oppression Moses was born. The Egyptian monarch had ordered all the male children of the Israelites to be destroyed at the birth; and the mother of Moses, after concealing him for some time, was obliged to expose him. The daughter of the king found him, and reared him as her own. As he grew up, he was instructed in the secret wisdom of the priests; but neither knowledge, nor the honours and splendour of the court, could make him behold with indifference the state of his native people. He mourned over their op-

pression, and panted to behold them in their former happy independence.

Seeing an Egyptian ill-treat an Israelite, he slew him: and, fearing the vengeance of the king, fled to Arabia, where he led a shepherd's life, near Sinai, in the service of an Arab sheikh. While here, he received the command of God to lead his people out of Egypt: he returned thither, and, by performing many wondrous deeds, compelled the reluctant monarch to let his slaves depart. But Pharaoh repented, pursued, and he and his whole army perished in the waves of the Red Sea.

During their long residence in Egypt, the Israelites had gradually been passing from the nomadic to the agricultural life, and had contracted much of the impure religious ideas and licentious manners of the Egyptians. They were now to be brought back to the simple religion of their fathers, and a form of government established among them calculated to preserve them in the purity of their simple faith. It pleased the Deity to be himself, under the name of Jehovah, the King of Israel, and their civil institutions were to resemble those of the country they had left, freed from all that might be prejudicial to the great object in view — that of making them a nation of monotheistic faith.

In the midst of lightning and thunder, while Sinai re-echoed to the roar, the first simple elements of their future law were presented to the children of Israel. No images, no hieroglyphics, were admitted into the religion now given: ceremonies of significant import were annexed, to employ the minds and engage the attention of a rude people. There was a sacerdotal caste, to whom the direction of all matters relating to religion and law (which were in this government the same) was intrusted; but they had no dogmas or mysteries wherewith to fetter the minds of the people; and being assigned for their maintenance, not separate lands, but a portion of the produce of the whole country, their interest would lead them to stimulate the people to agriculture, and thus carry into effect the object of the constitution. As

priests, judges, advocates, writers, and physicians, they were of important service in the community, and fully earned the tenth of the produce which was allotted to them. Their division into priests and Levites was a wise provision against that too sharp distinction which in Egypt and India prevailed between the sacerdotal and the other castes. The Levites, being assigned some lands, formed a connecting link between the priests and the cultivators.

Agriculture being the destination of the Israelites, trade was discouraged; for the fairs and markets were held in the neighbourhood of the heathen temples. But to compensate them for the prohibition against sharing in the joyous festivities of the surrounding nations, feasts were held three times in each year to commemorate their emancipation, the giving of the law, and their abode in the desert. At these festivals, all Israel was required to attend, that the bonds of brotherhood might be kept up among the tribes by participation in social enjoyment.

Thus, many years before Con-fu-tsee gave the *Kings* to the Chinese, long ere any lawgiver arose in Greece, Moses, directed by God, gave to Israel, in the wastes of Arabia, a constitution, the wonder of succeeding ages, and ever memorable for the influence it has exerted on the minds and institutions of a large and important portion of mankind.

During forty years, till all the degenerate race who had left Egypt had died off, Moses detained the Israelites in the deserts of Arabia, accustoming them to obey their law, and preparing them for the conquest of the land assigned as their possession. At the end of that period their inspired legislator led them to the borders of the promised land, and having appointed Joshua to be his successor, he ascended a lofty mountain to take a view of the country he was not to enter: he there died in the 120th year of his age. Under the guidance of Joshua, Israel passed the Jordan: the God of Moses was with them, and inspired them with valour to subdue their foes. A speedy conquest gave them the land. No fixed go-

vernment had been appointed; the people gradually fell from the service of Jehovah to worship the idols of the surrounding nations; and Jehovah gave them up into the power of their enemies. At times there arose among them heroes, denominated *judges*, who, inspired with patriotism and zeal for the law, aroused the slumbering tribes, and led them to victory. Then, too, arose that noble order of prophets who, in heaven-inspired strains of poetry, exalted the Mosaic law, and impressed its precepts, its rewards, and threats, on the minds of the people.

After the time of the judges, the temporal and spiritual dignities were, contrary to the intention of the lawgiver, united, and the high-priest exercised the sovereign power. This lasted but a short time: in the B. C.
person of the upright Samuel, a prophet, the temporal 1156.
was again divided from the spiritual dignity. The sons of Samuel trod not in the steps of their virtuous father. The prospect of being governed by them, and the want of a military leader to command them in their wars with the surrounding nations, made the people call on Samuel to give them a king. He complied with their wishes, 1095.
warning them of the consequences of their desire, and appointed Saul. This monarch was victorious in war; but he disobeyed the voice of the prophet, and misfortune ever after pursued him. It pleased Jehovah to take the kingdom from him, and Samuel anointed the youthful David to occupy his place. Saul was seized with a melancholy derangement of intellect. David, who was his son-in-law, won the affections of the powerful tribe of Judah; but while Saul lived, he continued in his allegiance, though his sovereign sought his life. At length, Saul and his elder and more worthy sons fell in battle 1055.
against the Philistines, and the tribe of Judah called their young hero to the vacant throne. The other tribes adhered during seven years to the remaining son of Saul. His death, by the hands of assassins, gave all Israel to 1048.
David.

David was the model of an Oriental prince, handsome in his person, valiant, mild, just, and generous, humble

before his God, and zealous in his honour, a lover of music and poetry, himself a poet. Successful in war, he reduced beneath his sceptre all the countries from the borders of Egypt to the mountains whence the Euphrates springs. The king of Tyre was his ally; he had ports on the Red Sea, and the wealth of commerce flowed during his reign into Israel. He fortified and adorned Jerusalem, which he made the seat of government. Glorious prospects of extended empire, and of the diffusion of the pure religion of Israel, and of happy times, floated before the mind of the prophet-king.

The kingdom of Israel was hereditary; but the monarch might choose his successor among his sons. Solomon, supported by Nathan, the great prophet of those days, and by the affection of his father, was nominated to succeed. The qualities of a magnificent Eastern monarch met in the son of David. He, too, was a poet; his taste was great and splendid; he summoned artists from Tyre (for Israel had none), and, with the collected treasure of his father, erected at Jerusalem a stately temple to the God of Israel. He first gave the nation a queen, in the daughter of the king of Egypt, for whom he built a particular palace. He brought horses and chariots out of Egypt to increase the strength and the glory of his empire. Trade and commerce deeply engaged the thoughts of this politic prince: with the Tyrians, his subjects visited the ports of India and eastern Africa: he built the city of Tadmor or Palmyra in the desert, six days' journey from Babylon, and one from the Euphrates — a point of union for the traders of various nations. Wealth of every kind flowed in upon Jerusalem; but it alone derived advantage from the splendour of the monarch: the rest of Israel was heavily taxed.

On the death of Solomon, the tribes called upon his
B. C. son to reduce their burdens: he haughtily refused, and
975. ten of the tribes revolted and chose another king. An apparently wise, a really false, policy, made the kings of Israel set up the symbolical mode of worship practised in Egypt. Judah, too, wavered in her allegiance to Je-

hovah. A succession of bold, honest, inspired prophets, reproved, warned, encouraged the kindred nations, and a return to the service of the true God was always rewarded by victory and better times. At length the ten tribes, by their vices and idolatry, lost the divine protection: they were conquered and carried out of their own country by the king of Assyria, and their land given to strangers. A similar fate befell the kingdom of Judah: the house of David declined, and the king of Babylon, Nebuchadnezzar, carried away the people to Babylonia. On the fall of that empire, some years afterwards, Cyrus king of Persia allowed to return to their own land a people whose faith bore some resemblance to the simple religion of the Persians, and whose country secured him an easy access to Egypt. Restored to their country, the Israelites, now called Jews, became as distinguished for their obstinate attachment to their law as they had been before for their facility to desert it. But the purity and simplicity of their faith was gone; they now mingled with it various dogmas which they had learned during their captivity. The schools of the prophets, whence in the old times had emanated such lofty inspiration, simple piety, and pure morals, were at an end; sects sprang up among them, and the haughty, subtile, trifle-loving Pharisees, the worldly-minded Sadducees, and the simple, contemplative Essenes, misunderstood and misinterpreted the pure ennobling precepts of the Mosaic law.

B. C. 721. 585.

Medes and Persians.

In the west of Asia the ancient sacerdotal constitutions had been now almost wholly abolished. To them succeeded despotism; and from the erection of the first great Assyrian and Babylonian monarchies to the present day the same appearance has been repeated with little alteration. One people has constantly succeeded another in the dominion over the lands between the Indus and the Mediterranean. So long as its military virtue has re-

mained unenervated by luxury and pleasure, it has retained its sway: each dynasty has sustained itself till it sank in sloth, and a bold and powerful usurper tumbled it from the throne for his own descendants to undergo a similar destiny.

The Assyrian power flourished and ruled over Asia. In the country south of the Caspian, named Media, the people, as did Israel in the days of Samuel, called for a king; but for a judge, not a warrior. Dejoces, distinguished for his wisdom and justice, was the first monarch: his grandson Cyaxares was allied to the king of Babylon, Nebuchadnezzar, and beneath their united efforts Nineveh, the Assyrian capital, and with it the power of the empire, fell. At this period the Scythians spread their swarms over Lesser Asia, Iran, Syria, and even Palestine. The king of Media freed Asia from their destructive hordes. In Lesser Asia there had been hitherto numerous little states, attached to temples of different gods; at these temples were held fairs and markets, and they were all closely connected with each other. At the period of the Scythian invasion these states were dissolved, and the kingdoms of Cilicia, Phrygia, and Lydia, were formed from them. Of the history of the two former we are totally ignorant. The two first dynasties
B. C. of the Lydians, the Atyades and the Heracleides, are
730. mythic: the history of Gyges, the first king of the Mermnade dynasty, is in part fable. In his time began the connexion between the Greeks and Lydians, who differed not much from each other in manners and religion. His successor, Ardys, warred with the Grecian colonies planted on the coast of Asia before there was any extensive monarchy in Asia Minor; and the Cimmerians, a horde from the Black Sea, poured over Lydia and Phrygia, and possessed them during the reign of his successor, Sadyattes. Alyattes, the next king, drove the Cimmerians from Lesser Asia at the time that Cyaxares expelled the Scythians from his dominions. The Lydian monarch ruled Lesser Asia, the Median from Bactria to the Tigris: war arose between them,

the king of Babylon became the mediator, and a marriage united the rival princes.

During the reign of Astyages, the successor of Cyaxares, the tribes of the Persians, a nation, in religion, laws, and manners, closely resembling the Medes, and who dwelt, partly stationary, partly nomadic, in the lands between the Persian Gulf and the mountains of Bactria, were united under Cyrus their native prince, and gained the dominion over the Medes. Cyrus was grandson to Astyages; but his early history is related differently by the Grecian historians. Cyrus led to war the mass of the Persian tribes, united with the more warlike portion of the Medes, and by his conquests founded the Persian empire. He first subdued the nations of the east, next turned his arms against the Sacians and other freebooting hordes of the north then led his mingled host against Crœsus, king of Lydia, who had reduced the Greeks of the coast, who so long had bid defiance to his predecessors. Crœsus was defeated and taken prisoner, but treated with kindness by the conqueror, whose friend and adviser he ever after continued. The whole of Lesser Asia, including the Grecian cities, submitted to Cyrus. Babylonia had been in alliance with Crœsus: its capital shared the fate of that of Lydia. Here Cyrus found the Jews who had been transplanted thither when Jerusalem was taken and plundered. Similarity of religious faith, humanity, and policy, co-operated to procure them permission to return and rebuild their city. Cyrus, it is possible, now meditated the conquest of Egypt. Judœa was the key to that country, and a grateful people might favour the operations of the Persian troops. The ancient cities of Persia, Pasagarda and Persepolis, where the treasures and chronicles of the empire were kept, and the kings crowned and interred, were considered too remote to be the seat of so extensive an empire as was that of Persia. Babylon was well adapted for that purpose; but a Persian monarch should reside in Persia, and Cyrus founded Susa on the Persian soil, at a convenient distance from Babylon. The last

B. C. 550.

B. C. 529. expedition Cyrus undertook was against the Scythians or Turks, and in an engagement with their tribes he lost his life. Cyrus possessed all the qualities of a great prince: his memory was long held in honour throughout the East, and his virtues drew forth the praises of the sages of Greece.

Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses, who invaded and conquered Egypt, aided by the Phœnicians, jealous of the favour shown by the last Egyptian kings to the Greeks. Cambyses attempted farther conquests; but his troops were driven back by the Æthiopians, and an army sent to take possession of the oasis of Hammon perished in the sands of the desert. He died by a wound from his own sword — a divine judgment, according to the Egyptians, for violating their sacred ox Apis — as he was about to return to Persia, where a Magian had, under the name of his brother Smerdis, seized on the throne. A conspiracy of seven nobles put an end to the life and 521. reign of the Magian, and Darius Hystaspes, one of their number, related to the royal family, was made king.

Under the reign of Darius, Persia flourished, religion was reformed and purified, the empire divided into a certain number of provinces, and fixed imposts established. Babylon had rebelled: the loyalty and treachery of Zopyrus, a Persian noble, reduced it to subjection. The Persian governor of Egypt attempted to conquer the Grecian states of Barce and Cyrene; but Grecian valour daunted the troops of Persia. The monarch in person led an army over the Hellespont against the Scythians; but their steppes fought for them, and he only conquered Thrace. Master of all the coast of Lesser Asia, Darius sought to bring under his sway the islands and the continent of Greece: his fleet was shattered, and the plain of Marathon witnessed the overthrow of 490. the first Persian host that trod the soil of Hellas. He was preparing another expedition against Greece; but family-feuds, and a rebellion in Egypt, occupied his 485. thoughts, and death finally surprised him. No Persian

monarch, save the great Cyrus, stands on a line with Darius.

Xerxes, the haughty son of a haughty mother, Atossa, the daughter of Cyrus, determined to wash away the disgrace the Persian arms had sustained in Greece. At the head of countless myriads, drawn from all the provinces of his empire, he passed the Hellespont. At B. C. Salamis he witnessed the destruction of his fleet: his 480. land troops, no longer supplied with provisions, perished with want and disease. The monarch, leaving a portion of his army in Greece under Mardonius, fled to Susa, and abandoned himself to pleasure. The next year saw at Platæa the total defeat of Mardonius, and the Grecian fleet, after the victory at Mycale, sailing in triumph along the coast of Asia. Cruelties exercised on his nearest relatives disgraced the latter days of Xerxes, and he perished, assassinated by his friends and guards, 467. Artabanus and Spamitres. The assassins accused of the murder Darius, the eldest son of the king, and he was put to death by order of his youngest brother, Artaxerxes, who mounted the throne.

Artaxerxes soon discovered the true murderers of his father. Artabanus atoned for his treason with his life. A rebellion raised by his sons was crushed by Megabyzus, the brother-in-law of the king, who also defeated an elder brother of the king, who was governor of Bactria, and had taken arms to assert his claims to the throne. Rebellion still raged in Egypt: an army sent thither by Xerxes, under his brother Achæmenes, had been cut to pieces, and Megabyzus was now despatched to reduce that country. He effected his object by negotiation; but the obedience of the Egyptians was not durable, and revolt succeeded revolt continually. This prince, surnamed *Long-armed,* was a monarch who possessed many great and amiable qualities. He died after a long reign, and 424 the history of Persia presents from this, or rather an earlier period, the usual scenes of cruelty, treachery, fraud, and faction, characteristic of oriental despotism. Brothers murdered by brothers, queens exercising every

species of cruelty on their rivals and their friends, eunuchs disposing of the throne, assassinating their sovereign, and perishing in their turn by justice or by
B. C. similar treachery, are ordinary events, till, in the reign of
331. the virtuous and ill-fated Darius Codomanus, the Persian colossus was thrown to the earth by the arms of Greece.

For when Artaxerxes II. mounted the throne, his younger brother Cyrus, who was governor of Lydia, Phrygia, and Ionia, under pretence of quelling some disturbances in Cilicia and Pisidia, collected an army in which were 10,000 Greeks, and with it marched against
401. him. The armies met at Cunaxa, in the neighbourhood of Babylon, and victory declared for Artaxerxes, as Cyrus fell in the action. The Greeks had on their side been conquerors: they were now deserted by their Persian confederates, deprived of their leaders by treachery; yet without guides, they, through the midst of a hostile nation, barbarous tribes, mountains, defiles, and deserts, reached with trifling loss the coast of the Euxine. This, when known in Greece, betrayed the internal weakness of the Persian empire. Agesilaus the great Spartan had collected a Grecian army in Lesser Asia, the axe was apparently laid to the root of the Persian monarchy, when Persian gold effected what Persian steel could not: bribery armed a confederacy in Greece against Sparta, Agesilaus was recalled to the defence of his country, and the fate of Persia was delayed for a season.

The Persian dominions at the period of their greatest extent embraced India west of the Indus, and all the country between it and the Mediterranean, Lesser Asia, Thrace, Palestine, and Egypt: Arabia paid tribute; the mountain-tribes of Caucasus and the Turkish borderers were numbered among its subjects. Yet, as the instance of the Carduchians or Koords proves, there were many tribes in the very heart of the empire who yielded but a nominal submission, maintaining nearly total independence. Under Cyrus, each subject state was left its own form of government, only bound to acknowledge the sovereign by tribute and attendance in war. Darius, by at-

tempting to establish an uniformity of administration throughout his dominions, deprived his subjects of all love of independence. They ate, drank, ploughed, and wove, heedless of who ruled over them; were dragged at times away from their homes to share in wars they took no interest in; passive machines, they paid their taxes, or carried arms; like a flock of sheep on fertile pastures, they fed heedlessly till they became the prey of wolves. They bowed as submissively beneath the sceptre of the Macedonian hero and his successors as under that of the descendants of Cyrus.

CHAP. III.

GREECE.

Early State of Greece.

IMPENETRABLE obscurity covers the early times of Greece. Were we to believe ancient tradition, corroborated by the testimony of geology, a country named Lectonia once covered a great portion of the space now occupied by the Ægean Sea. An extensive sea was spread over the plain of Scythia, which burst the Bosporus, and poured into the Mediterranean, submerging Lectonia, and overflowing a large part of Greece. Hence this country was long under the dominion of water. The tradition of the fertile vales of Thessaly and Bœotia having been lakes was long preserved.

Buildings of gigantic dimensions still to be seen in Greece testify for its having been in a very remote period the seat of a civilised race. These ruins are long anterior to history: they are mentioned in the Homeric poems. Tradition ascribes the erection of them to the Cyclopes, an imaginary people. Some have supposed the aborigines of Greece to have been under the rule of a caste of priests, but without reason, for their erections

were works of utility, and not of show, like those of Egypt and India. The existing records do not justify us in supposing any race to have dwelt in Greece previous to that called the Pelasgian, which was spread over Greece, Italy, and a part of Lesser Asia, in all of which Cyclopean buildings are to be found. The Pelasgians were commercial and agricultural, consequently peaceful and industrious. Their religion, from which that of the Greeks was derived, seems to have been of a rural character. To the Pelasgian succeeded the Achæan period, in which the national character changed, either in consequence of internal alterations, or of a conquest of the Pelasgians by a more warlike race, named the Achæans. In this period, the people of Greece appear warlike and unquiet, and their religion more elegant. Their ports were visited by the Phœnicians from a very remote age: they also practised navigation themselves.

Colonies, it is said, came from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Phrygia, and civilised the barbarous, mast-eating savages who roamed the wilds of Greece. Danaus, an Egyptian, ruled at Argos; Cecrops, from Saïs, at Athens; Pelops, the Phrygian, gave name to Peloponnesus; Cadmus, the Phœnician, founded Thebes. Little reliance is to be placed on these accounts: there is no evidence of any race of the inhabitants of Greece having been in the savage state. The Phœnicians, undoubtedly, early visited the coasts of Greece, and a colony did, perhaps, settle there; yet it is unusual for a maritime people to go so far inland as Thebes. With respect to the Egyptian colonies, it is not unlikely that the artful and vainglorious priests of Saïs, and of other towns of Egypt, imposed their fables on the credulous Greeks who first visited that country.

The Achæan period is the heroic age of Greece: then flourished, or are said to have flourished, the mythic heroes Hercules, Theseus, Jason, and others: then were the Argonautic expedition, the wars of Thebes, and that of Troy, eternised by the verses of Homer. As a real historic event, the chief that this period offers is, the

erection of a kingdom by Minos in Crete, three generations before the Trojan war. This monarch, at once king, prophet, and lawgiver, collected the various tribes of Crete into one state, established a marine, conquered the piratic Carians, who swarmed in the Ægean, and reduced the isles beneath his power.

The Achæans, like the Pelasgians, were devoted to agriculture and navigation. Their government was aristocrato-monarchic: they possessed numerous slaves, acquired by war or by purchase, who performed all servile offices. Their chief amusements, like those of the Germans and Scandinavians, were gymnastic exercises, and at banquets listening to the songs of bards, who chanted the deeds of living or departed heroes. Manners, language, religion, were the same in all the states: even between the Achæans and the Trojans no difference is to be perceived on these points. The Pythian and Dodonean oracles tended to keep up union: no traces of castes appear: the princes and fathers of families were priests. The monarch was distinguished chiefly by his personal qualities: he had the command in war, a larger share of the booty, precedence, and a portion of land assigned him. The nobles were distinguished as much by their powers of mind and body as by birth. The people were present at all public deliberations; and though they had no voice in them, their approbation or the contrary was not without effect.

The religion of Greece was the worship of deities presiding over the various parts of nature and powers of mind. Under the names of Zeus, Poseidon, Apollo, Hera, Pallas, &c., names mostly of dubious origin, these deities were honoured by temples, sacrifices, processions: oracles were believed to announce their will and the future. This system of religion was Grecian, and unborrowed. The Phœnicians may have introduced some new deities; and, when an intercourse was opened with Egypt, mysteries and new rites and dogmas were imported from that country.

Dorian Migration.

The Achæan race acknowledged a supreme head in the king of Mycenæ. After the Trojan war, the bonds that united them were loosed. A time of disturbance and revolution came: the Dorians, a brave and hardy race, left their abodes in the mountains, and came down on Greece. This movement was followed by great changes: numerous emigrations took place: Grecian colonies covered the coasts of southern Italy, Sicily, and Lesser Asia. The Dorians, it is said, were led by the descendants of Hercules to make good their claim to the throne of Argos, of which their ancestor had been deprived; and the Dorian immigration is called the Return of the Heracleides. But Hercules is a mythic personage,—one who, it is probable, never had a real existence; and the Dorians were, doubtless, moved by other causes. They speedily overran the Peloponnesus: her mountains defended Arcadia: Achaia alone remained to the Atreidæ: Laconia, Messenia, and Argolis became the property of the Dorians: Ægina and the neighbouring islands fell to them, and a portion of them settled in Crete. A Peloponnesian people named the Ionians retreated to Attica, and joined its inhabitants, who were of the same race; being pressed for room, a portion of these migrated to the banks of the Hermus, in Lesser Asia, and the adjacent isles. Peloponnesians, named Æolians, had previously settled on the coast from Cyzicus to the Hermus. No great kingdom existed at that time in Lesser Asia: the coasts had been possessed by pirate states of Leleges and Carians. The people of the interior favoured the settlement of the Ionians; a race of mild manners, less addicted to war than to trade and manufactures. The conquering Dorians afterwards came from Crete, and took from the Carians Cnidus, Halicarnassus, and Rhodes. Thus were formed the Grecian cities of Lesser Asia, where poetry, philosophy, arts, and science bloomed ere they attained any height in Greece.*

* The common name of the Greeks was Hellenes, a name posterior to the time of Homer. It is uncertain when it first came into use.

Sparta.

The Dorian state of Laconia was, at this period, the greatest state of Greece. Two kings were at the head of it; under them stood the Dorian nobility, the Spartans; then the Periœci or Laconians, and, lastly, the Helots, or descendants of the conquered people, a body of oppressed, ill-used serfs. Disputes and unfixed relations among these orders made the want of a settled system of legislation apparent. Lycurgus, brother to one of the kings, and guardian of his infant heir, saw this necessity, and resolved to remedy it. He went to Crete, whose constitution, originally established by Minos, and renewed by the Dorians, was then in the highest repute; made himself acquainted with its institutions, and formed a code of laws, such as he deemed fitted for Sparta. The Delphic oracle, so highly venerated by all of Dorian race, applauded his project, and pronounced him inspired.

The object of all Dorian legislation was the maintenance of a martial character in the upper and dominant classes. To crush and grind down the ill-fated serfs, and give leisure for the practice of military exercises to the warlike race of the conquerors, was the aim of both Cretan and Spartan legislation. In Crete there were but two orders, the lords and the serfs: in Laconia there were three; the Periœci or Laconians, whether Dorians of mingled marriages, or Achæans who had been left some privileges by the conquerors, forming a link between the two former. Lycurgus divided the lands of Laconia into 39,000 lots; 9000 large ones for the Spartans, and 30,000 smaller for the Periœci, the former to be tilled by the miserable serfs. The government was in the hands of the Spartans alone, who, having abundance of leisure, were engaged in unceasing military exercises. By a fatal error in legislation, the number of the Spartan families was closed, and in default of male issue daughters could inherit landed property; hence there arose an inequality among the leading families, and

a pernicious oligarchy, where women had powerful influence. At the time of the Theban war, the greater part of the land was in the hands of females.

The Spartan government consisted of the two kings of the race of Hercules, and a senate of twenty-eight old men (the Gerusia), chosen by the people. The kings were leaders in war, and out of Laconia their power was unlimited. The people (*i. e.* the Spartans) were assembled every full moon to decide on measures proposed by the senate, which they could only accept or reject; they decided on all crimes against the state, on the succession of the kings, and the election and dismissal of magistrates, on peace and war, and all questions of foreign policy. The Periœci had no share in legislation, but both they and the Helots served in the armies.

As a counterpoise to the power of the kings, a magistracy, the Ephorate, was introduced in the time of king Theopompus. The Ephori were five men selected from the people (the Spartans), without regard to age. They alone were always in connection with the people; they had the inspection of all magistrates, were present at every transaction, always attended the kings, directed all foreign affairs, accused kings and magistrates before the people, where they were themselves both judges and accusers. At length they completely crushed all other power, and became the tyrants of the state.

The greatest rigour of manners was enjoined by Lycurgus. He established Syssitia, or public meals, at which all the male part of the citizens ate together. The most implicit obedience and regard to age was impressed on the minds of youth; the most inflexible endurance of pain inculcated; most things, even slaves, horses, and dogs, were possessed in common. The chase was their favourite enjoyment; every species of trade was prohibited; money was huge masses of iron.

The natural result of such an education was a sternness of character, a pride and haughtiness, and love of command. While the institutions of Lycurgus continued

in vigour, the Spartan character was distinguished for the sterner virtues; when it relaxed, profligacy and corruption of every species broke in amongst them.

Athens.

Athens did not rise into importance till long after Sparta. Argos was a large city; and Corinth, the entrepôt of trade between the Ægean and Ionian seas, was abounding in wealth before Athens became of any consequence; but they and the other states of Peloponnesus offer at this period little to attract attention.

The tale of the Egyptian Cecrops coming to Attica is a manifest fable. Attica had numerous petty princes, each ruling his own village. A prince, named Theseus, is said to have united several of these little states into one, and collected the people to Athens. But his power could not have been great, as the soil of Attica was poor, and Athens had as yet no trade. At the time of the Dorian irruption into Peloponnesus, the family of Theseus lost the throne; and Melanthius, of Achæan race, from Messenia, coming to Athens, obtained the chief direction of affairs: his son Codrus drove back the Dorians, and forced them to be content with Megara, at that time united with Attica. The legend says, Codrus offered himself up for his country, and that the royal dignity was abolished out of honour to him. The republican spirit had, however, from various causes, been on the increase at Athens. Towards the end of the sixth olympiad *, a regular aristocracy was established: the chief magistrate was called Archon, and his office was annual. A farther change augmented the number of archons to nine, three with peculiar rank and titles, six as presidents of courts of justice. This was the foundation of a rigid aristocracy; but as the people had all along retained the right of assembling to pass laws, it was in a condition, whenever it could get a leader, to assert its rights and better its condition.

But the aristocracy, being in possession of the administration of justice, and being also invested with the sa-

* The olympiads were periods of four years. The first began B. C. 776.

cerdotal dignities, the people had no sure place of refuge
B. C. when aggrieved. Matters fell, therefore, into turmoil
623. and confusion. Draco, in the first year of the thirty-ninth olympiad, sought a remedy in the revival of an ancient species of divine law; but its general maxims were too rigid and severe. It suited not the spirit of the times, and became generally detested. The internal troubles still continued; and twelve years afterwards, in a struggle between two aristocratic parties, Cylon, the head of one of them, attempted, by the aid of the *tyrant* or ruler of Megara, to raise himself to similar power in Athens. His project failed; the nobles, headed by the Alcmæonides, the chiefs of the rival faction, summoned their vassals from the country, and besieged Cylon and his adherents in the citadel. He and his brother escaped; but his followers were decoyed from the altars and slain. This offence brought down vengeance from the gods; and though the chief agents were exiled, defeat and sickness visited the city. A prophet, Epimenides of Crete, was summoned to purify and atone for the city. He regulated the religious worship, and prepared the way for the system of legislation projected by his friend Solon.
594. In the third year of the 46th olympiad, Solon being archon, the land-owners and citizens, debtors and creditors, were in open feud. Solon was called upon to legislate. His first step was to arrange matters between debtor and creditor, which he accomplished by altering the standard, and lowering the rate of interest. He then deprived the nobility of a portion of their former power, by dividing all the people into four classes regulated by property: thus, while he introduced a democracy, founding a new aristocracy. The nobility, as possessors of the largest properties, as the sole members of the court of Areopagus, as possessed of the priesthoods, and directors of religious ceremonies, still retained an ample degree of influence. By the establishment of the Council of Four Hundred an annually rotating college, he at once gave so many families an interest in the new order of things, that there remained no chance of its being totally subverted.

He finally made all the people swear not to make any alteration during the next ten years, deeming that period sufficiently long for habituating them to the new constitution.

Solon's laws did not put an end to the internal broils. The nobility, being the owners of the largest properties, were in the first classes, and the contests for honours and dignities raged among them as hotly as ever. The lowest class, the *Thetes*, who were excluded from office, and were not liable to taxes, or to serve in heavy armour, formed in the popular assembly a portion of the sovereignty, and sat in courts of justice. They were a ready weapon for any one who knew how to employ it. The old local parties of the Paralians and the Pediæans also still subsisted. Solon had travelled to the East: Megacles, the chief of the Alcmæonides, who had now returned to Athens, was at the head of the Paralians; Lycurgus was the leader of the Pediæans, or country gentlemen; Peisistratus, a descendant of the ancient kings, sought the favour of the lower class. He obtained by their means the supreme power: his rivals, however, united and expelled him. Megacles then gave him his daughter in marriage, and restored him, but again drove him away. After eleven years' absence, Peisistratus returned at the head of an army, and governed Athens till his death. His sway was mild and beneficent; the laws of Solon were observed, and Athens flourished under him. His sons, Hippias and Hipparchus, who succeeded him, trod in his steps; but an act of private revenge deprived the latter of life, and conferred an unmerited immortality on the assassins, Harmodius and Aristogeiton. Hippias grew suspicious and cruel. The Alcmæonides had devoted their wealth to the rebuilding of the temple of Delphi: the priestess, gained by them, incessantly commanded the Spartans to restore liberty to Athens. The latter, glad of the pretext, obeyed the oracle. Hippias B. C. abandoned Attica, and retired to his estates in Asia. So- 510. lon's constitution remained; but the heads of parties, to obtain influence, attached themselves to the aristocracy or the people. Isagoras, of ancient lineage, headed the for-

mer, favoured by the Spartans. Cleisthenes, the Alcmæonide, sought to win the people. When archon, four years after the banishment of Hippias, he shook the whole Solonian constitution, and opened the way to all the future evils of unbridled democracy, by dividing the four original tribes into ten, and altering in like manner all the inferior divisions, and increasing the senate to 500 members, 50 from each of the new tribes. Prompted by Isagoras, the Spartans sent a herald to demand the banishment of those stained with the blood of Cylon's adherents. Cleisthenes was obliged to yield and retire. The Spartans attempted to restore the old aristocracy; the Athenians sought aid of Persia; Cleomenes, the Spartan, marched an army against Athens; but his allies abandoned him, and his colleague, Demaratus, refusing to join in his project, the Spartans retired, and the democracy of Athens was fully established.

CHAP. IV.

GREECE TO HER SUBVERSION BY THE MACEDONIANS.

The Persian War.

GREECE and Persia now first came into conflict. Cyrus had conquered the Grecian colonies in Lesser Asia: the love of liberty however was not extinct, and the secret advice of Histiæus, tyrant of Miletus, whom Darius detained at his court, threw the Ionian cities into revolt. They called on Athens, as head of the Ionian race, to assist them. The aid was granted, and the anger of the Great King thereby incurred. Darius meditated the conquest of Greece and the islands; he sent his ambassadors to demand homage: many islands, especially Ægina, delivered earth and water. A large army, under Datis and
B. C. Artaphernes, was sent to subdue the refractory. The
490. plain of Marathon witnessed the defeat of the Persian vassals by 9000 Athenians and 1000 Platæans. Datis

and Artaphernes returned to Asia with the discomfited host..

The Athenians resolved to punish those who had submitted to the Persian king. Their first enterprise against Paros, under Miltiades, failed; the general was condemned to pay the costs, and being unable, was treated according to Athenian law, *like any other citizen*. Aristides, Xanthippus, and Themistocles, took the place of Miltiades, and by employing the proper methods of managing a democracy, raised Athens from a petty town to the rank of a leading state. The threatening war of the Persians showed that Athens' only hope lay in the augmentation of her navy. Themistocles awaked the ancient grudge against Ægina; and the produce of the silver-mines of Laurium, which had been hitherto divided among the citizens, was appropriated to the building of a fleet. Athens and Ægina were in conflict when intelligence arrived of the immense preparations of Xerxes, the Persian king, for the conquest of Greece. All enmity ceased; a bond for common defence was established among the Grecian states. In the spring of the first year of the 75th olympiad, Xerxes led, as is said, two millions of Asiatics over the Hellespont. A fleet of 1200 vessels attended the march of this huge multitude. The progress of the Persian monarch was unimpeded till he reached the ever-memorable pass of Thermopylæ, leading from Thessaly into Proper Greece. The narrow passage between the mountain and the sea was guarded by a resolute band of Spartans, Phocians, Locrians, and others, under the command of Leonidas, the Spartan king. Division after division of the Persian army were repulsed with immense loss in attempting to force their way. At length, a traitor revealed another passage through the mountains: Leonidas, on hearing it, dismissed his allies, and, at the head of his Spartans, attacked the Persian multitudes, and fell, covered with wounds, amidst the heaps of slain. Monuments, song, and story, have conspired to exalt this deed of heroes. Meantime, the Persian fleet had suffered from a storm,

B. C. 480.

and had been roughly handled by the Greeks in an engagement off the promontory of Artemisium.

The Persian army marched on to Attica, took and burned Athens. The Grecian fleet lay in the strait between Salamis and the continent; the Persian imprudently attacked them there: a total defeat was the consequence. Xerxes, who had from the land beheld the destruction of his fleet, hasted back to Asia, leaving an army of 300,000 under Mardonius. The following year the Greeks, to the number of 110,000, fought and defeated the Persians at Platæa, and but 40,000 of the latter returned to Asia. On the same day (Sept. 22.) the Grecian fleet totally defeated that of the Persians at the promontory of Mycale, in Ionia.

Athens got a large share of the Persian spoils; the city was rebuilt, and the port of Piræus fortified. The insolence of Pausanias, the Spartan chief, having disgusted the allies, the command was transferred to Athens. It was resolved to prosecute the war against Persia; each of the allies was bound to supply a certain number of men and ships; they compounded with the Athenians for the payment of an annual sum of money, instead of furnishing their contingent; the Athenian treasurers received each year the contributions of the cities on the isles and coasts of the Ægean; and Athens, at the expense of the allies, maintained a powerful army and navy. The jealousy of the Spartans was excited; they were on the point of declaring war, when an earthquake levelled Sparta; the Helots and Messenians rose in rebellion, and the haughty Spartans were forced to call on Athens for aid. But they distrusted their allies, and the Athenians joined the Argives, the hereditary foes of Sparta. The rebellion of the Helots lasted ten years, and was ended by a composition with the rebels. Athens was now in the height of her power; she sent 200 ships to Egypt to assist the natives against the Persians, took a part in the affairs of Cyprus, beat the Æginetes, and established a democracy at Megara. The great men of Athens at this period were, Aristides, Themistocles, and Cimon; all of

whom, like Miltiades, experienced popular mutability, and were driven from their country.

The Peloponnesian War.

Pericles was now the leading man at Athens. An Alcmæonide by the mother's side, and son of Xanthippus, who won the victory at Mycale, he sought power by bringing in the wildest democracy. All barriers of the constitution were thrown down, and power given to the lowest rabble, by whom and over whom he hoped to rule. Of commanding eloquence, he swayed the people; handsome, rich, generous, and brave, he was master of their affections. Magnificent in his taste, he adorned the city with stately buildings at the cost of the allies, and all the arts flourished beneath his patronage.

Pericles reduced Eubœa and Samos; he covered the coasts and islands with Athenian colonies; he made the Athenians masters of the sea, and already those dreams of distant conquest, which caused their overthrow, began to float before the imagination of the vain-glorious people. He sought to enfeeble the Doric confederacy, and an opportunity soon offered. Corinth and her colony Corcyra were, after Athens, the most considerable naval powers. United, they were able to cope with her; but commercial jealousy prevented their co-operating, and, at last, they went to war with each other. Corcyra addressed herself to Athens for aid; the Corinthians complained to Sparta of the breach of the truce by the latter power: other events occurred to increase the odium against Athens, and, at length, war was declared against her by the Doric confederation, and an army, under Archidamus, one of the Spartan kings, invaded Attica. The plan laid down by Pericles for carrying on the war was, to abandon the country to the Lacedæmonian army, and then retaliate by descents on Peloponnesus, by which they would soon weary the confederates of the war. Unfortunately, destiny fought also against Athens: in the second year of the war the plague broke out, and swept

B. C. 431.

away numbers of citizens; amongst them, Pericles himself. The war was still carried on with various success. The most remarkable event of it in Greece, was the gallant defence of Platæa against the Peloponnesians. The greatest man that appeared among the Spartans was Brasidas, who, to the severe virtues of a Spartan, united mildness and gentleness of manners. Among the Athenians, Nicias and Demosthenes were the most distinguished of the nobles; Cleon, the leading demagogue; but Alcibiades, of noble birth, immense wealth, extreme beauty, and eminent talents, far eclipsed all the men of his time. He was the ward of Pericles and the pupil of Socrates; but, hurried away by his ambition, he waited not till years had matured his judgment, engaging in politics he took the popular side, and plunged his country into the fatal expedition to Sicily.

Numerous Grecian colonies had settled in Sicily, and had risen to great wealth and power: they were almost all democracies; but tyrants occasionally ruled them. Syracuse was the most distinguished of these cities. Gelon had possessed himself of the tyranny, and governed with justice and mildness: after his death, the people fell into divisions: the smaller cities, which were oppressed, applied to Athens for help. Alcibiades, who was then in the plenitude of his influence, warmly exhorted the people to attend to the call, and drew a brilliant picture of the glorious prospect of universal empire that now seemed destined for Athens. In an evil hour the people, though warned by Nicias and other men of age and experience, yielded their assent, and an expedition against Syracuse was decreed. The finest fleet that ever left Athens sailed under the command of Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamachus, and success at first attended its operations; but the enemies of Alcibiades accused him of profaning the mysteries; he was recalled, and fled to Sparta: a Spartan general, Gylippus, was despatched to Syracuse, and though the Athenians augmented their army in Sicily to 40,000 men, and sent

out Demosthenes, their ablest general, it was defeated, B. C. 412.
and men and generals lost life or liberty.

The news of this misfortune was at first not credited at Athens: when its truth was confirmed, the people looked around and saw themselves without horse, or heavy infantry, or ships, with an empty treasury, their subjects in rebellion, their allies fallen off, the enemy in their country, and before their port; yet they lost not courage, but vigorously prepared for defence. The Lacedæmonians, by the advice of Alcibiades, instead of making annual incursions into Attica, had taken and fortified Decelia, a post half way between Athens and Bœotia, and from thence wasted the country: still the Athenians held out for seven years: and, but for the party-spirit that prevailed, which drove again into exile Alcibiades, and unjustly put to death most of their other good generals, they might have come off victorious in the struggle. The vanity and inexperience of the Athenian commanders (warned in vain by Alcibiades) gave a decisive victory 405.
to the Lacedæmonian Lysander, at the river Ægos, and Athens' last hope, her renewed fleet, was lost. Lysander soon appeared in the Piræus; the people made a gallant resistance, but hunger compelled them to sue for peace. The Thebans and Corinthians insisted that the city should be burnt, and the inhabitants reduced to slavery. The Lacedæmonians declared they would never submit to the destruction of a city which had merited so well of Greece. But to cramp her power effectually, she was allowed to possess but twelve ships; the *Long Legs*, the walls between the city and the Piræus, were broken down; and the government placed in the hands of an oligarchy of thirty persons.

Thus ended the Peloponnesian war, after a continuance of twenty-seven years, and with it the dominion of Athens, in the seventy-fifth year after the battle of Salamis. During that period Athens had acquired another and more lasting empire, of which Lysander could not deprive her: she had become the mistress of Greece in all the arts and sciences that embellish and ennoble life.

Poetry, philosophy, architecture, sculpture, attained during the time of Athenian sway an eminence never surpassed. The philosophy of Socrates and his disciples, the dramas of Sophocles and Euripides, the stately Parthenon, and other works of the immortal Phidias, drew thither all Greece; and nowhere were religious festivals celebrated with equal taste and splendour. Commerce flourished; good taste was diffused among all ranks of society.

Lacedæmonian Dominion.

When Athens fell, Sparta remained without a rival: she commanded at sea as at land: her Harmosts, somewhat like the English residents at the courts of Indian princes, directed the policy of the independent towns of Greece and Asia. The pride and arrogance of Sparta lost her this empire. The oligarchy established and protected at Athens by her became odious; Athe-
c. nian exiles, headed by Thrasybulus, returned to their
403. country in arms, and overthrew the thirty tyrants. Conon, the Athenian, was admiral of the Persian fleet; Persian gold was employed to raise the city to independence: the *Long Legs* were rebuilt, and Athenian fleets again appeared at sea. Sparta still sought to establish an oligarchy in every town; and wherever, as at Olynthus, popular liberty established itself, the Spartan commanders had orders to extinguish it.

During this period, Persia exercised considerable influence in the affairs of Greece. The memorable retreat of the Ten Thousand, who, opposed by all the arts of oriental treachery, by all the forces of the empire, and the difficulties of an unknown, mountainous country, had forced their way to the Euxine, revealed the secret of the internal weakness of that vast empire. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, had meditated conquests in Asia, and had for
396. two years carried on war with success in that country. The Persian court saw its danger, and adopted the policy of subsidising the different states of Greece, and keeping up such a balance of power among them, as would pre-

vent any projects of invasion of Asia. Hence, as in modern times two Turkish pashas may have different foreign policies, so of the two satraps of Lesser Asia the one would support the Lacedæmonians, the other their enemies. By these means the influence of the Persian monarch was become so great in Greece, that he dictated the terms of a peace among the contending states; in which he declares the cities of Lesser Asia, and the islands of Clazomenæ and Cyprus, to belong to himself, and pronounces the independence of all other cities, great and small, with the exception of Lemnos, Imbrus, and Scyrus, which should belong as of old to Athens, and menaces with war such as refuse to accept it. This peace, called that of Antalcidas, from the name of the Spartan who was the chief agent in bringing it to bear, was viewed with indignation by every man of noble mind, who compared it with the terms which Greece, when at unity with herself, had imposed on the Persians, and saw in it loss of honour and independence by the permission of foreign interference. B. C. 387

Theban Dominion.

Sparta had humbled Athens; her own turn was to come from a quarter whence it was least expected. A Spartan general, Phœbidas, had, in the midst of peace, made himself, by treachery, master of the citadel of Thebes; his government punished him, but retained the fortress, and established an oligarchy in that city. Sparta seemed at this period in the height of her power. Her king, Agesilaus, was victorious in Asia, she had dissolved the Olynthian confederacy, and reduced Olynthus to that state of subjection, from which Athens alone was exempt, and never less dreaded decline, when a conspiracy was formed by some of the democratic party in Thebes; the principal oligarchs were murdered, the citadel besieged, and the garrison forced to surrender.

Two great men now appeared to guide the Theban

affairs, Pelopidas and Epaminondas; the Athenians joined them; the Thebans recovered their supremacy over the other Bœotian towns. The Lacedæmonians were now forced to recall Agesilaus from his conquests in Asia to oppose the Theban and Athenian generals. The power of Thebes continually increasing, the Athenians grew jealous, and sent ambassadors to Lacedæmon to treat of peace. Theban envoys also appeared; it was agreed, the Thebans alone dissenting, to restore the Grecian cities to independence; and Sparta, who had lost all influence out of Peloponnesus, willingly withdrew her harmosts. Cleombrotus was marching his troops out of Phocis, when he received orders to make the Thebans restore the other Bœotian cities to independence. The Thebans, who were dissatisfied at the peace by which they were the only losers, refused compliance; the armies met on the plain of Leuctra, and the
B. C. 371. Spartans were for the first time defeated in a pitched battle. The charm was now dissolved. It was proved that the Lacedæmonian arms were not invincible.

Epaminondas and Pelopidas now invaded the Peloponnesus at the head of 40,000 men; the Argives, Elians, and the democratic party in Arcadia joined the Thebans, who entered and ravaged the Lacedæmonian territory. Epaminondas advanced into Messenia, called the oppressed inhabitants to liberty, recalled the exiles, and raised a town named Messene, in which he placed a Theban garrison. Athens joined Sparta. Ambassadors from all the parties hastened to the Persian court. Pelopidas headed the Theban embassy, peace was dictated on the Theban terms, and the stream of gold that previously flowed to Sparta was directed to Thebes. The Arcadians had now become powerful in Peloponnesus. Lycomedes, one of their leading men, sought to detach them from the Thebans: the latter, fearing to lose their influence in Peloponnesus, sent an army thither under Epaminondas. A second battle for the supremacy in Greece was fought at Mantinea between

the Thebans and Lacedæmonians, and Epaminondas died in the arms of victory. B. C. 362.

Philip of Macedon.

The republican spirit was now extinct in Greece: no state was in a condition to take the lead; no man of any eminence was to be found except in Athens. The republican virtues had fled from those who had sunk to be the pensioners of Persia. A monarchical was the only form of supremacy suited to the present state of Greece, and Providence had provided such in a constitutional monarchy — that of Macedon.

Jason, the tyrant of Pheræ in Thessaly, had conceived this design. The Thessalians were a strict aristocracy, with a numerous body of vassals called Penests, resembling the barons of the middle ages. Occasionally there rose a prince in some town among them who gradually united several towns under him. At this period, Jason was such in Pheræ, and Polydamas in Pharsalus. Both were men of virtue, only that of Jason was not proof against ambition. They united in the project of turning the quarrels of Thebes and Sparta to the advantage of Thessaly, and by the influence of Polydamas, Jason was chosen Tagus or commander-in-chief of Thessaly. He took the same road to power afterwards so successfully trodden by Philip; but he was unfortunate in three circumstances: his troops were chiefly mercenaries, and therefore not to be depended upon; he was not an hereditary prince, and his nobility were jealous of him; he appeared at a time when the great Theban generals were in the height of their glory, and when Athens had generals far superior to those she opposed to Philip. Fate seemed resolved to deprive Thessaly of the glory of becoming a great power. Jason perished by the daggers of conspirators: his brothers and his nephew Alexander were tyrants, in the modern sense. The last was

murdered by his own relations, and Thessaly fell into confusion and disorder.

B. C. 357. At this period the celebrated Holy War broke out, and greatly contributed to the farther demoralization of Greece, when all reverence for the gods and every thing sacred was lost, and the holy offerings collected for so many years in the temple at Delphi, were scattered through Greece, the precious metals melted and coined, the crowns and other votive offerings profanely worn by women and boys of loose life.

The Bœotians and Thessalians formed the great majority in the Amphictyonic Council. They caused a decree to be passed, inflicting a heavy fine on the Lacedæmonians for their ravages in Bœotia; and when these refused payment, they, from private motives, did the same to the Phocians for having occupied the land that once belonged to the Cirrhœans, and had been consecrated to the god. Relying on the aid of Athens and Sparta, the Phocians refused obedience, and by the advice of Philomelus, one of their chief men, seized on the temple and its treasures. Greece at that time abounded in soldiers of fortune, men who made war a trade, who served any one who was able to pay them. Masters of the immense wealth of the temple, the Phocians, therefore, easily collected an army, and they carried on the contest for a space of ten years.

In this war the Thessalians, being hard pressed by the Phocians, called Philip king of Macedon to their aid. This talented prince, who had been brought up at Thebes in the time of Epaminondas, had, from the day he ascended the Macedonian throne, all his thoughts occupied on the means of strengthening and extending his hereditary kingdom. He aided the Thessalians, and, after a variety of changes of fortune, the Phocians were at length destroyed. Philip made himself master of Olynthus and all the cities on the coast of Thrace, and in spite of all the efforts of Demosthenes, who did all that was in man to rouse the Athenians to energy while it was yet time, continually advanced in his plans of power

and aggrandisement, and at length, on the field of Chæronea, saw the independence of Greece prostrate at his feet. B. C. 338.

Philip was now at the height of his power: the Spartans had been excluded from the Amphictyonic Council, and the votes of the Phocians transferred to him: he had the right of priority in consulting the Delphian oracle, and was president of the Pythian games. He called a general assembly of the Greeks to Corinth; and was there appointed commander-in-chief of the Grecian forces in the war now to be undertaken against Persia, under pretext of avenging her former violations of the Grecian temples. The Macedonian monarch thus occupied the station for which he was fitted, and which the present state of Greece required,—that of head of the Grecian confederacy; from which the generous patriotism of Demosthenes so long sought to exclude him. The idea of reducing Greece to a province of his kingdom he was too wise to entertain. In the midst of his projects for the conquest of Asia he fell by the hand of an assassin.

CHAP. V.

ALEXANDER AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

Alexander.

ALEXANDER was in his twentieth year when his father was slain: he had been educated by Aristotle, and his naturally great talents sedulously cultured. Difficulties environed him on his accession: the Athenians and Thebans, on the intelligence of the death of Philip, were flying to arms, when Alexander appeared in Bœotia at the head of an army. They were terrified and desisted. The Illyrians and Triballi had made inroads into Macedon: the young prince marched against them, and conquered to the Danube. A report was spread in Greece of his death: Thebes rose in arms; but Alexander sud- 337.

denly returned, entered Bœotia, and took and levelled that city. All Greece was now at his devotion. He called on the different states for the contingents they had
B. C. voted his father for the invasion of Asia; and, at the
334. head of 30,000 foot and 4500 horse, passed the Hellespont. At the river Granicus the Persian army opposed his progress: it met a total defeat, and all Lesser Asia fell to the conqueror: he restored the Grecian cities to independence, and pursued his march through Cilicia. At
333. Issus, in the pass of the mountains leading into Syria, he again encountered and defeated the Persian army. He
332. continued his progress southwards, took Tyre, after an obstinate resistance, and reduced all Egypt to subjection. He here founded the most permanent monument of his fame, the city of Alexandria,—a place that has exercised such influence on the political and moral relations of the world as ever to render it memorable,—marched with a select body of men to the oasis containing the temple of Ammon, and obtained from the priests of the god a declaration of his divinity; acting in this, perhaps, with policy,—perhaps, with vanity.

The conquests of Alexander can only be compared with those of the Arabs or Mongols in rapidity. Darius having assembled another army, his rival hastened from Egypt. On the plain between Gaugamela and Arbela, at the foot of the Armenian and Koordish mountains, he encountered the host of Darius, composed, it is said, of a million of men, while the Grecian troops were, at most,
331. 50,000 men. The Persians were utterly routed; Darius fled to the north-eastern provinces of his kingdom, and Babylon and Susa fell into the hands of the conqueror. Persepolis and Ecbatana shared their fate. Meantime Darius was murdered by Bessus, governor of Bactria. According to oriental maxims, Alexander was now king, and he resolved to avenge the death of his predecessor: he invaded Bactria, put to death Bessus, who had assumed the diadem, and conquered the whole of those northern provinces of the Persian empire. He founded cities in Bactria and Sogdiana, and then directed his

course towards India. From the southern part of Balkh he marched through Candahar*, Ghizni, and Caubul, to the Indus. Though valiantly opposed by the natives, the predecessors of the modern Seeks, he was victorious, and still advanced, till the discontent of his troops obliged him to return: he proceeded southwards along the river, sent a fleet under Nearchus from the Indus to the Persian Gulf, and, with a great loss of men and beasts, made his way across the deserts into Persia. Shortly afterwards he met his death from drunkenness, or poison, it was said, at Babylon, in the thirty-third year of his age. B. C 323

Alexander's great object seems to have been the establishment of one great and permanent empire, of which the different parts would be united by mutual political and commercial advantages. Hence he sought to do away all national prejudices, and make his different subjects feel themselves one people. To attain this object, he founded those numerous Grecian cities in various parts of his oriental dominions, and had he lived a few years longer he might possibly have, in a great measure, accomplished what he aimed at. But his early death frustrated all these great projects, and the ambition of his generals speedily pulled down the fabric he was erecting.

Division of Alexander's Dominions.

Alexander died without appointing a successor. The queen, Roxana, was pregnant, and he had a half-brother, named Philip Aridæus, who was simple. When dying, he had given his ring to Perdiccas. After much warm dispute among the generals, they came to the resolution that Alexander (Roxana's son) and Philip Aridæus should be proclaimed kings; that Perdiccas should be guardian, and that each general should take the charge of a province. The partition of offices and provinces was thus made:—Perdiccas had no province, but was com-

* The city of Candahar is said to have been founded by Alexander. Its name seems evidently derived from his. He is called in the East Iscander, and, rejecting the first syllable, *Cander* and *Candahar* are not unlike.

mander-in-chief of the army: the prudent Antipater had charge of the European dominions; Seleucus, of Babylon; Ptolemy, of Egypt, Libya, and part of Arabia; Leonatus, of Mysia; Antigonus, of Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia; Lysimachus, of Macedonian Thrace; Laomedon had Syria; Python, Media; Menander, Lydia; &c. &c. To the valiant Eumenes was assigned Cappadocia, whose inhabitants were yet to be subdued.

The kings were only such in name, and these Grecian satraps saw and grasped at the opportunity of making themselves independent princes. A period of unceasing tumult, war, and murder, formed the first sixteen years that succeeded the death of Alexander. Perdiccas first conceived the plan of gaining the empire by destroying the governors, one after another. This plan was facilitated by their mutual animosities, or their contests with those over whom they ruled. Ptolemy, the most powerful of the governors, was singled out as the first object of
B. C. attack. Perdiccas led an army into Egypt, but was mur-
321. dered by his own mutinous troops.

Antipater, having suppressed a rising of the Greeks, named the Lamian war, passed over to Asia. He died
318. shortly after, having appointed Polysperchon to succeed him. Polysperchon joined the party of Olympias, the mother of Alexander. Aridæus and his wife were put to death, and the friends of Antipater persecuted. The nobles clung to his son Cassander, and Olympias expiated
316. her crimes by a violent death.

Antigonus took and put to death Eumenes, who maintained the rights of Alexander's family. He now ruled over all Lesser Asia, wrested Syria and Phœnicia from Ptolemy, and drove Seleucus from Babylon. His valiant son Demetrius passed over to Greece, and restored the cities to freedom; then collected a fleet, and defeated that
306. of Ptolemy off Cyprus. Antigonus now assumed the title of *king*, and his example was followed by the other governors. The family of Alexander was now extinct, Roxana and her son having been put to death by Cassander. But Antigonus's reign was of short duration: his

ambition was too inordinate; and a league was formed against him by Ptolemy, Seleucus, Lysimachus, and Cassander. Antigonus fell, in his 80th year, in battle against his rivals, on the field of Ipsus, in Phrygia, and the victors shared his dominions among them. B. C. 301.

The dominions of Alexander were now divided into four great kingdoms. Macedon, with a part of Greece; Thrace; Syria, with all Upper Asia; Egypt, with Cyrene and Cyprus.

Macedon.

Cassander, when he had destroyed the family of Alexander, took the title of king. His vicious and feeble sons lost their lives and the throne, which was seized on by Demetrius, son of Antigonus: he was expelled by Pyrrhus, the Epirote; and Pyrrhus, by Lysimachus, king of Thrace. During a space of ten years, kings of different houses governed the paternal dominions of Alexander. In the time of these kings, an army of Kelts devastated Macedon penetrated into Greece, and advanced to pillage the temple of Delphi. The Greeks rolled down rocks from the heights; thunder roared through the mountains; —the terrified barbarians fled, and the god got the renown of defending his temple. 315. 287.

Antigonus Gonatas, son of Demetrius, a man of prudence and humanity, raised Macedon out of the ruin into which it had been plunged; and, during a reign of thirty-seven years, he was the lord of Greece. His son, Demetrius II., who succeeded him, emulated his virtues. Demetrius dying, left an infant son, Philip, whose uncle and guardian, Antigonus, surnamed Doson, married the widow of the late king, and usurped the kingdom, which he governed with ability for eleven years, and then left to the lawful heir, Philip. This prince mixed himself in the affairs of Greece, and was recognised as sovereign lord of that country. War took place, in consequence, between him and the Romans, and Philip was defeated, obliged to withdraw his garrisons from Greece, reduce his ship- 239. 229. 197

B. C. 168. ping, and pay the expenses of the war. His son Perseus renewed the war with Rome, but was taken, and died in prison; and Macedon was shortly afterwards reduced to a Roman province.

The Macedonian kingdom extended from the Propontis, through Thrace, to the mountains of Ætolia, lying at the north of the country of Greece.

Greece.

We have seen all Greece submit to Philip and Alexander. After the death of the latter, some unavailing efforts had been made, especially by Athens, to re-establish the ancient freedom; but they were always obliged to bow their necks, once more, to the Macedonian yoke. There was no union among them; they pursued their old feuds and petty contests, instead of combining for a common object; and their country was continually ravaged by the armies of the contending generals of Alexander.

Sparta, which had sulkily refused to take part in the conquest of the East, and had waged an unsuccessful war against Antipater, had long since seen the decline of her Lycurgean constitution. In vain the patriotic Agis sought to bring his country back to her former state; his life atoned for his opposition to the tyrannic oligarchs. Sparta became the dominion of the most odious of tyrants; she joined the Romans against Macedon, and then changed sides, and she ended by becoming, like the other Grecian states, a part of the Roman dominions.

The cities of Achaia renewed among themselves an old confederacy, named the Achæan league, which, under the guidance of Aratus, laboured with vigour for the freedom of Greece against Macedon: gradually, other states, and, amongst them, Athens, joined the league. The Ætolian towns formed a similar union; but their want of faith and freebooting habits prevented their arriving to any importance. Civil discord, the perpetual bane of Greece, gave the Romans the wished-for

opportunity of intermeddling in its affairs. Corinth was taken and destroyed; and Greece reduced to a Roman province, under the name of Achaia. The last of the heroes of Greece was Philopœmen, the Arcadian general of the Achæan league, justly styled the last of the Greeks. Two thousand years have rolled away since the death of Philopœmen, without Greece, till of late, producing a warrior for independence. May she derive wisdom from the past, and avoid the errors by which she lost her freedom! B. C. 183.

Thrace.

Lysimachus made himself king of Thrace; he conquered Macedon, and was also master of a part of the countries about the Euxine. His reign was the flourishing period of Thrace; but it was of short duration. Lysimachus fell in battle against Seleucus: the Gauls ravaged the land, which sometimes obeyed Syrian, sometimes Egyptian, princes. The native chiefs recovered their power. King Cotys, one of these princes, formed an alliance with the Romans: king Sasales gave up Thrace to them. 281. 43.

At this period, some independent states arose in Lesser Asia, which we shall notice in this place.

Bithynia.

This country, stretching along the Black Sea to the Propontis and the Hellespont, was, at one time, tributary to the Lydians, and then to the Persians. After the death of Alexander, a native chief, named Bas, expelled Calanthus, the Macedonian governor. Internal troubles continually agitated this state. Nicomedes I., to keep his throne, allied himself with the Gauls, to whom he assigned a district, called, from them, Galatia. Prusias is known by Annibal's having sought in vain a refuge at his court. Nicomedes II. was expelled by Mithridates, and restored by the Romans; to whom Nicomedes II., having no children, made over his dominions. 74.

Pergamus.

The ancient Mysia vanished in the Lydian and Persian empires. While Lysimachus, king of Thrace, ruled this part of Asia, his lieutenant, a eunuch named Philetærus,
B. C. made himself independent, and established a kingdom,
283. called Pergamus, from its capital. He was succeeded by his nephew, Eumenes, who extended his dominions considerably. Attalus II. was the first who took the title of king. The most celebrated of these kings was Eumenes II., in whose reign the pergament, or parchment, was invented. His dominions embraced the Thracian Chersonese, and Asia this side of Taurus, consequently, Mysia, Lydia, the two Phrygias, and Lycaonia. His
133. son, Attalus III., having no heirs, left his kingdom to the Romans.

Pontus.

This country, named from the Pontus Euxinus, on which it lay, formed a part of northern Lesser Asia, east of Bithynia. It was included in the Persian dominions, and was given as a hereditary fief by Darius I. to his son Artabazes. Ariobarzanes, one of his successors, having
365. obtained also Lydia, Phrygia, and Ionia, became so powerful, that he cast off the Persian yoke. Mithridates II. voluntarily surrendered his kingdom to Alexander. When, after that monarch's death, Antipater attempted to seize this state, the Pontic prince resisted, and maintained his independence. Succeeding princes enlarged their do-
120. minions. Mithridates VI., the greatest of them, was talented and ambitious: yet, though desirous of conquest, he sought to avoid a conflict with the Romans, at that time masters of a great part of Lesser Asia. He therefore turned his arms eastwards, and conquered the tribes round the Euxine as far as the Tauric Chersonese. But two such powerful neighbours could not continue long without a rupture; war broke out between them on account of Pamphylia and Cappadocia, and during a space of thirty years the gallant and indefatigable king of

Pontus sustained a war against the arms of Rome, conducted by Sulla, Lucullus, and Pompeius. Poison, administered by his own hand, terminated his eventful life. His grandson Darius reigned over Pontus; but its glory and its power were gone, and it was finally, by the emperor Nero, reduced to the form of a Roman province. B. C. 64.

Armenia.

This mountainous but fruitful country appears not till late in the history of Asia. It was divided into Great and Little Armenia, and had obeyed successively the Assyrian, Persian, and Syrian empires. In the reign of Antiochus III., Artaxias, the governor of Great, and Zariades of Little Armenia, made themselves independent. Tigranes, a descendant of the former, united the two Armenias, and was superior lord of Syria and Cappadocia. His father-in-law, Mithridates VII., involved him in a war with the Romans, and he lost Little Armenia and Syria. Tigranes II. was put to death by order of the Roman emperor Tiberius. Little Armenia had been given after the fall of Mithridates to Dejotarus, a Galatian, and then to other foreigners. After this period it vanishes out of history, and Great Armenia becomes the apple of discord between the Romans and Parthians. After many conflicts between the contending parties, it had again kings of its own in the time of the emperor Hadrian, and was finally absorbed in the Persian empire of the Sassanides. 190.

Syria.

Seleucus, named Nicator, was, after the death of Alexander, governor of Babylon. He extended his power eastwards into India, and, after the battle of Ipsus, he became master of Syria, and possessor of all or nearly all the countries that had composed the Persian empire. Seleucus was an active, prudent prince, an encourager of trade, and a founder of cities. With him the Syrian empire rose; after his death it gradually declined. His

son Antiochus obtained the name of Soter, the Saver, from having delivered Lesser Asia from the Gauls; but he was forced to acknowledge the independence of Bithynia and Pergamus. Antiochus II., named, by his flatterers,
B. C. Theos, the God, was weak and effeminate. The Par-
250. thians cast off the yoke of Syria, and their example was followed by the Bactrians. Seleucus II., seeking to regain the lost supremacy, died a prisoner in Parthia. Antiochus the Great fought in vain against the Parthians and Bactrians: he reduced the rebel governors of Media
217. and Persia; but his defeat by the Egyptians at Raphia lost him Palestine and Cœlosyria. Engaging in war with the Romans, he invaded Greece, but was repelled; and
190. the battle of Magnesia checked his career of ambition. The terms on which the haughty senate dictated peace were, the surrender of all the countries on this side Taurus, payment of 15,000 talents to the Romans, and 400 to Eumenes of Pergamus; the delivery of Annibal, and the sending of his son as a hostage to Rome.

The Syrian power was now at an end. Roman influence was paramount: all efforts to shake it off were futile. Murder and treason disputed for the throne: neighbours and subjects took advantage of its weakness. Parthia rapidly extended its conquests. Judea and the Armenias asserted their independence. The empire was finally contracted to Proper Syria and Phœnicia. Tigranes of Armenia seized on Syria; and the Romans
64. gave the empire of the Seleucides its *coup de grace*, by declaring Syria a Roman province.

Judea.

550. Only a small portion of Israel took advantage of Cyrus's permission to return to their own country. Those who did return were chiefly of the tribe of Judah; and hence the nation is in future called Jews. They were feeble, and they continued in humble obedience to the Persian monarchy. On its destruction,

they obeyed Alexander and his successors, first the king of Egypt, and then of Syria.

Their rulers had hitherto respected their religion. Antiochus Epiphanes attempted to force them to adopt Grecian rites. The Maccabees, a race of heroes, like the judges of old, arose. Mattathias assembled bands in the mountains, and thence fell on the Syrians. His valiant son, Judas Maccabeus, continued the warfare, defeated several Syrian armies, and entered Jerusalem in triumph. He formed an alliance with the Romans. The brothers of Judas, Jonathan, Simon, John Hyrcanus, followed up his successes so ably after his death, that the Syrians were forced to acknowledge the independence of Judea. B. C. 168.

Uniting in his own person the dignities of high-priest and prince, John Hyrcanus extended his dominion over Galilee, the country beyond Jordan, Idumea, &c.; and the Jewish state became under him of greater extent than it had been since the days of David and Solomon. His son Aristobulus took the title of king. 105.

The Jewish power was not of long continuance. Factions and feuds broke out: the throne was often disputed. The Romans interposed to settle the succession. Pompeius led an Aristobulus and his sons to Rome, and gave the throne and priesthood to his brother Hyrcanus, placing a Roman governor by his side. The troubles, however, still continued; and the Romans at last set the Idumean Antipater over Judea, whose son Herod became king, a prince well known for his cruelty. 62. 39.

On the death of Herod, the Romans divided his kingdom among his three sons. The whole was reunited under his grandson Agrippa, and after his death reduced to a Roman province. A. D. 44.

Parthia.

Parthia is the country lying between Media and Aria, south of Hyrcania. Its inhabitants had obeyed the Persian and Syrian monarchs: the tyranny of a governor of the latter drove them into rebellion. Arsaces, a man of

B. C. 250 humble birth, but military talent, placed himself at their head, and achieved their independence. The succeeding Arsacides, as the kings were named, enlarged their dominions, which gradually extended from India to the Euphrates, from the Caspian to the Arabian sea. When the Romans became masters of Lesser Asia, proximity produced enmity, and the Parthians were the only people who resisted Rome with success. Crassus, who led the first Roman army over the Euphrates, was defeated and slain. In the civil wars of the Romans they also took a share, siding with Pompeius against Cæsar; and with the latter's murderers against Octavianus and Antonius. Ventidius, the general of the latter, gave them a decisive overthrow.

The remaining history of the Parthians offers only, externally, continued wars with various success against the Romans; internally, the usual series of murder, usurpation, and cruelty, which characterises the monA. D. 226. archies of Asia. The twenty-ninth of the Arsacides was driven from his throne by Artaxerxes, a descendant of the ancient line of Persia; and a new dynasty, that of the Sassanides, so named from Sassan, the founder's father, was established.

Egypt.

Egypt was the most fortunate of the provinces in the character of its governor. Ptolemy, son of Lagus, was a man of prudence and moderation: his first object was to form there a Grecian state without oppressing the original inhabitants. Peace was necessary for the execution of his judicious plans, and he never, but when constrained, took part in the quarrels of the other governors. After the battle of Ipsus, to the gaining of which he had mainly contributed, he also assumed the title of king. He then turned all his thoughts to the benefiting of his kingdom; he beautified Alexandria, built the Pharus light-house, encouraged every kind of trade, collected a library, and invited learned men from all parts to Alexandria. His empire included Egypt, Libya, Cyrene,

part of Arabia, Palestine, and Cœlesyria; and flourished each day more and more, in consequence of his wise regulations and just government. Ptolemy II., named Philadelphus, trod in the footsteps of his father, and equalled or excelled him in his patronage of learning. He much extended and facilitated the trade to India, by repairing the canal from the Nile to the Red Sea; and, still more, by forming the harbour of Berenice on that sea. Ptolemy III., Evergetes, imitated his father and grandfather, and closed the series of the virtuous Ptolemies. B. C. 221.

After the death of Evergetes, there reigned in Egypt ten degenerate descendants of Ptolemy Lagus. Discord agitated this royal house, like others; murders were perpetrated for empire. The constant interference of the Romans alone preserved it from dissolution. With their consent, and by the will of his father, the last Ptolemy espoused his sister Cleopatra, and shared his empire with her. Driven from Egypt, she sought the protection of Cæsar, who re-established her as sole ruler. After his death, she united herself to Antonius; and, on his death, poisoned herself, rather than grace the triumph of Octavianus. Egypt was then reduced to the form of a Roman province. 30.

The kingdoms of Europe and Asia, whose destinies we have traced in the preceding pages, fell, as we have seen, almost all into the spreading empire of Rome; a state which, as will soon appear, grew up from the smallest origin, and, gathering strength from every storm that assailed her, at length embraced nearly the whole civilised world beneath her shade. To her we now hasten, previously sketching the early history of her first transmarine rival,

Carthage.

At an early period of history a colony of Tyrians, said to have been conducted by Dido, sister to the king of Tyre, founded on the coast of Africa the city of Carthage. Possessed of the commercial enterprise and dexterity of their countrymen, they rapidly extended their trade and

their dominions. Numerous cities on the coast of Africa were founded by them: they trafficked with the interior: their ships sailed to the south beyond the Canary isles; northwards they visited the shores of Gaul and Britain, and, perhaps, those of the Baltic: they wrought the silver mines of Spain: their colonies occupied the isles of the Mediterranean.

The political constitution of Carthage claimed the admiration of Aristotle. Two magistrates, named Suffetes, or judges*, chosen annually from the most distinguished families, were at the head of the government: under them were five persons who managed the chief affairs. All these magistrates were unpaid. The senators had their seats for life. If they and the suffetes agreed on any matter, it was put into execution; if they disagreed, it was brought before the assembly of the people: the decision of the last was conclusive. Morals were more attended to in Carthage than in most Grecian cities, and there was a magistrate there corresponding with the Roman censor. The popular power was not so dangerous in Carthage as in Greece, the people being of a grave and solemn character, and not to be led astray by the arts of demagogues. Their manners were rugged, their religion dark and cruel.

B. C. 413. Six wars were waged by the Carthaginians in Sicily. The first was caused by the people of Egesta calling on them for aid against Dionysius of Syracuse. In this war fortune favoured the Punic arms. A second and a third war ensued between them and the prince of Syracuse, still to the advantage of Carthage. During a fourth Dionysius died, and his son made peace. The Carthaginian arms were, for the fifth time, directed against Syracuse, in support of Icetas, tyrant of Leontium. Timoleon, the Corinthian, commanded the Syracusan troops, and 340. forced Carthage to restore the Grecian towns to freedom, to recognise the river Halycus as their boundary, and to engage not to meddle with the affairs of Sicily. Aga-

* *Shofetim* is the Hebrew name of the *Judges* of Israel.

thocles was the occasion of the Carthaginians again engaging in hostilities with Syracuse; and the latter was so hard pressed as to be forced to call on Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, for assistance. Carthage was successful against Pyrrhus; but this war involved her in hostilities with Rome, and thereby caused her ruin.

CHAP. VI.

ROME TILL THE PUNIC WARS.

Rome under Kings.

WHILE empire after empire was flourishing and falling in Asia, while the various states of Greece were contending with each other, or occupied by internal changes, there was growing up, from the smallest beginnings, a nation destined to be the future mistress of all these states and empires.

Italy, the peninsula westward of Greece, was originally inhabited by tribes of an unknown race. The Pelasgians, that extensive people who settled in Greece, also established themselves in Italy. They inhabited the plains and the coasts, and were peaceful and agricultural: the mountain tribes gradually encroached upon them and conquered them. On the banks of the river Tiber, a portion of this people, named Siculans, was established: a tribe of the mountains, named Aborigines by the historians, invaded their country, expelled a part, and conquered and settled themselves among the remainder; and the united people were called Latins. A portion of them lived in villages, on some hills adjacent to the Tiber. Another mountain-race, called the Sabines, afterwards advanced towards the sea, and wrested from the inhabitants of the banks of the Tiber a part of their territory. These nations finally coalesced, and formed one people; their joint city was named Rome, possibly its old Pelasgian appellation, and it was governed by B. C. 753.

kings, chosen alternately by one of the combined nations out of the other.

Such is the most probable account of the origin of Rome which the researches of modern times have been able to give.* A different and more romantic tale appears in the ancient historians; for the early history of Rome was not written till she had become a great and powerful state, and then enquirers could meet no narratives of the days long past, save what was contained in popular tradition and popular poetry, which recorded marvels of Rome's descent from wide-famed Troy, the landing of Æneas in Latium, the love of the god Mars for the vestal Rhea, her bearing twins by the god, their exposure in the Tiber, their being saved and suckled by a wolf, and fed by a woodpecker till found by the shepherd Faustulus, their finally restoring their grandfather to the throne of Alba Longa, the city founded by Ascanius, the son of Æneas, and then collecting their fellow-shepherds and an indiscriminate rabble, and founding a town named Rome, from Romulus, the elder of the twins, on the hills where they had been miraculously saved and educated.

The religion of Rome having, probably, had a similar origin with that of Greece, strongly resembled it; and the Grecian system was, in a great measure, afterwards adopted by the Romans. Religion was, however, in Rome, at all times, much more an affair of state than in Greece.

The first constitution of Rome, whatever her origin, was monarchical. Romulus the warrior, and Numa the legislator, who appear in history as her two first kings, it is possible, never existed. The first undoubted historic fact of this early period, is the migration of the Albans to Rome when their city was destroyed, the Roman writers say, by Tullus, the king of Rome; strong circumstances intimate, by the Latins, who afterwards possessed her territory. Ancus, the succeeding monarch, extended the Roman dominions to the sea, and built the

* Niebuhr has been followed in this view of the early history of Rome.

port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber. His successor was named Tarquinius. The legendary history says he was a Tuscan of Greek descent, and, in its usual style, marks his arrival at Rome by a miracle: probability is on the side of the supposition of his having been a Latin, or of some kindred nation. He greatly extended the Roman power, increased and beautified the city of Rome, embanked the Tiber, built the huge sewers for the drainage of the city, which still exist, and commenced the erection on the Capitol of the united temples of the three great gods of Rome.

Tarquinius fell, it is said, by assassination; and the vacant throne was occupied by an Etrurian named Mastarna, a condottiere, or leader of mercenary troops, who had come to Rome and entered the service of Tarquinius. Having changed his appellation, he appears in history under the name of Servius Tullius; but the legend of Servius born of a maid-servant who had conceived by the fire-god, and around whose infant brows lambent flames had played, bears not the slightest resemblance to the history of the Etrurian captain Mastarna. Servius continued the works commenced by Tarquinius, and immortalised his memory by the constitution which bears his name. A conspiracy of the principal citizens, who were displeased at the changes he had introduced, deprived Servius of his life; and his throne was occupied by a grandson of Tarquinius. This monarch was magnificent and princely in his ideas; he was successful in war, and raised Rome to a high degree of power; but he is said to have been haughty, cruel, and tyrannic. An act of violence done by one of his sons is related to have roused the indignation of the people; Tarquinius and his family were expelled, and the kingly authority abolished.

The Romans were originally divided into three Tribes, each tribe subdivided into ten Curiæ, and each of these latter into ten Gentes, or houses. A representative of each gens sat in the senate. In the time of the earlier kings we find, however, but two tribes sending members to the se-

nate; the third was subsequently admitted to that privilege. These three tribes were the original citizens of Rome, the *Populus;* and there were, besides them and their slaves, a body of people called Clients, foreigners, who, from various causes, had removed from their own country to Rome, and settled there under the protection of Roman citizens, who, as their patrons, are called Patres and Patricians, words originally synonymous. In the reign of Tullus, a new body began to be formed by the migration of the Albans to Rome; this was called the *Plebs.* It contained all ranks of society, both nobles and commons, of the migrating people, and mostly retained its property in its lands; but it had no share in the government, or in the public lands, which were enjoyed by the patricians on the payment of a tenth of their produce to the state: it formed the infantry of the army, had no right of intermarriage with the patricians, lived apart from them, and was opposed to them in interest.

The patrician gentes, being a closed body, did not admit of their vacancies being filled up, and they continually diminished in number. The plebeians were, on the other hand, receiving constant accessions. Tarquinius I., after a good deal of opposition, succeeded in forming three new tribes out of the plebeians, and adding them to the patrician tribes. His successor went still further; he divided all the plebeians into thirty local tribes, independent of the patrician ones; and then, to combine the two orders more effectually, constituted a mingled aristocracy and timocracy, by dividing all the people into Centuries for the purposes of war, and of passing laws and electing magistrates. It was thus composed: the three original tribes and the three formed by Tarquinius were first; to these Servius added twelve centuries, composed of the most wealthy of the plebeians; and these eighteen were to supply the cavalry of the army: hence the whole were called Equites. The remainder of the plebeians were divided, according to their property, into five Classes, subdivided into centuries; and the rest of the people were put into other centuries. The

classes furnished the infantry of the army; those not in the classes, the baggage-train, &c. When the centuries were assembled in the Field of Mars, their place of meeting, laws and other matters, previously prepared by the senate, were laid before them; the equestrian centuries voted first, and then the first class; and the number of centuries in this class was so great in proportion to those in the remaining ones, that if they agreed with the equestrian centuries, the majority was attained, and there was no necessity for calling up any more of the classes. The patricians had afterwards, in their curiæ, the power of adopting or rejecting the measure which had passed the centuries. The legislator's object of giving power to wealth and birth was thus fully attained; and but for the useless injustice of the patricians, who could not endure to part with ever so little of their privileges, Rome might have become, long ere she did, the mistress of the world.

The form of government adopted by the Romans on the expulsion of their kings was that of placing the executive in the hands of two magistrates, to be chosen annually from the patricians. These magistrates were originally called Prætors, afterwards Consuls, and they held the full kingly power, only divested of its priestly dignity.

Rome had attained a high degree of power under her kings. By a treaty made in the first year of the republic with the Carthaginians, which has fortunately been preserved, it appears that she was mistress of the whole coast from Ostia to Terracina, and traded with Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa. B. C. 508.

The Tuscans — War with Porsenna.

The country to the right of the Tiber was inhabited by a people called Etrurians or Tuscans. Manners, language, and religion distinguished them from the neighbouring nations. They possessed twelve cities in the country called Etruria, and an equal number in northern Italy, about the Po. The current opinion was, that they were a colony from Mæonia, who came by sea and con-

quered the inhabitants of Etruria, and then extended their conquests northwards: the more probable supposition is, that they were a nation who entered Italy on the north-east, and spread their conquests southwards. At the period we now treat of they were fast approaching the acme of their power, which, though brilliant, was transient; for liberty was not in Etruria: no free land-owners, like the Roman plebs, formed for her an invincible infantry. The Tuscan Lucumones, or nobles, ruled over vassals similar to the Helots of Laconia, or the Penests of Thessaly.

It was to this people that the Tarquinii addressed themselves for aid to regain their lost dominions, after an attempt to recover them by treachery, in which even the sons of Brutus, the expeller of the tyrant, were engaged, had failed. The Veientians are said to have taken arms in their favour; a battle took place, in which the consul Brutus, and Aruns, a son of the banished tyrant, fell by mutual wounds, and victory declared for Rome. The legend relates, that Tarquinius then invoked the aid of Porsenna, king of Clusium, a powerful Tuscan prince, who marched against Rome; and though history seeks to veil the disgrace of surrender, by marvellous tales of the valour of Cocles, the intrepidity of Mucius, the heroism of the female hostages, and the magnanimity of Porsenna, the ungrateful truth is still apparent, that Rome was amerced in one third of her territory, and prohibited the use of iron, except for agricultural purposes. The Etrurians now extended their dominion into Latium; before Aricia they met a defeat from Aristodemus, the Greek tyrant of Cumæ, and Rome seized this opportunity of regaining independence.

Tarquinius and his claims had been neglected by Porsenna. He now roused the Latins to arms in his cause. A great and decisive battle is said to have taken place on the banks of the lake Regillus, in which the fortune of Rome again triumphed, and the baffled tyrant fled to Aristodemus at Cumæ, where he died.

Dictator — Secession — Tribunes.

The constitution devised by Servius was just and equitable, calculated to unfold and bring to maturity the various elements which composed the Roman state; but it was checked and nearly smothered by Tarquinius the Tyrant. On his expulsion, the patricians, who felt their need of the cordial support of the plebeians, restored it in some measure. The consuls were elected by the centuries, and the Valerian law secured the plebeians in their life, property, and honour.

But when Tarquinius was no longer an object of terror, and the Etrurian and Latin wars were ended, the patricians sought to bring back matters to their former state, or rather to a worse; for during the monarchy, the king was the natural protector of the plebeians. By the Valerian law, the plebeians had been given the same right of appeal from the sentence of a magistrate, and of trial by their peers, which had always been possessed by the patricians; but this extended to only a mile from the city. This right of appeal lay even against the sentence of the consuls. To evade this law, and deprive the plebeians of their safety even within the city, a magistracy named the Dictatorship was instituted, an office of Latin origin. The dictator was chosen by the senate, and approved of by the patricians: his power while in office was regal; no appeal lay from his sentence. At first even the patricians had no appeal, though they afterwards obtained it. It was, in fact, a power directed against the plebeians, who were always terrified at the creation of this magistrate. B. C. 499.

The patricians kept exclusive possession of the public domains. Having the government in their own hands, they no longer paid a tenth to the state. Taxes, wars, famine, reduced great numbers of the plebeians to distress; they were forced to borrow money at a usurious interest. The patricians, or their clients in their name, were the principal creditors. The law of Servius, forbidding pledging of the person for debt, had been abolished.

The *Nexi* * were continually brought before the prætor's tribunal, and made *Addicti*. Every patrician house was a gaol for debtors; and after every court-day, in times of distress, droves of sentenced debtors, with their sons and grandchildren, might be seen driven off in chains to these dungeons.

The grievances of the plebeians were intolerable, yet there appeared no remedy. While they were in this state of uncertainty, an old man one day broke from his prison in chains, and covered with rags: he appealed to the Quirites to protect him, enumerated the battles he had fought, recounted the causes of his misfortunes, and showed the bloody marks of his creditor's cruelty. The pity and indignation of the people were excited; all were clamorous for relief. The senate knew not what to do; they ordered a levy against the Volscians; the people refused to enlist. The consul Servilius issued a proclamation allowing those who were in slavery for debt to serve, and declaring that as long as a soldier was under arms, his family should remain in undisturbed enjoyment of his property. The legions were filled up, and the army soon returned covered with conquest and laden with booty; but the hopes of the plebeians were disappointed. Next year they again refused to serve in the legions. Valerius was made dictator, and he issued a proclamation similar to that of Servilius. The people trusted in the character of Valerius, and the power of the dictatorship. The army was victorious; but even Valerius could not overcome the obduracy of the senate, influenced by the unbending tyrannic spirit of Appius Claudius.

The dictator's army had been disbanded; those of the consuls were still in the field. An insurrection broke out. The legions appointed L. Sicinius Bellutus their leader, crossed the Anio, and occupied the Sacred Mount. The plebeians in the city and its vicinity retired to the Aventine and Esquiline hills of the city: the patricians and

* Those who were in debt under obligation to pay after a certain period were called *Nexi*; those who failed to pay and were by the prætor delivered over to their creditors were called *Addicti*.

their clients occupied the Palatine, Capitoline, Quirinal, and Cælian: these were all separate and fortified. Matters might have come to bloodshed, but that the power of the two parties was pretty nearly balanced, and the dread of external enemies made them averse to weaken themselves. The patricians formed an alliance with the Latins: they then deputed ten of the principal members of their body to treat with the plebeians, and peace was ultimately established and sworn to between the two orders. By this the patricians sought to separate the interest of the multitude from that of the men of rank: to the latter they conceded nothing, gave them admittance to none of the honours of the state; to appease the former, they consented to give force to the Valerian law, to cancel all debts, and release all enslaved debtors. But the law of debt remained unaltered.

This secession and treaty were rendered memorable by the institution of the Tribunate, an inviolate popular magistracy, established for the protection of the plebs, which proved a salutary check on the excesses of either party; was the chief mean of preserving Rome so long from *bloody* dissensions; but, like every human institution, growing pernicious when it had outlived its original purpose, afterwards became a chief instrument in the overthrow of liberty. B. C. 492.

Spurius Cassius, and the Agrarian Law.

The bonds of alliance were now drawn closer between the Romans and the Latins, and a third nation, the Hernicians, was taken into the alliance. According to the terms of it, all spoils and conquests were to be divided, share and share alike, among the three nations.

Sp. Cassius Viscellinus, the Roman consul, was the person who concluded this league. He, some time after, brought forward the first Agrarian law, was accused before the curiæ of aiming at the sovereignty, was condemned, and executed *more majorum*, that is, scourged and beheaded, his house was razed, and its site left desolate.

The Roman Agrarian laws have frequently been represented as unjust and iniquitous. A moment's consideration of their nature will prove such a supposition to be groundless. It was the practice of Rome, and the Italian states in general, on making a conquest, to take a portion, generally a third, of the enemy's land. This then became public land, and was occupied for tillage or grazing, by the citizens of the state which had acquired it; they paid a tenth of the produce by way of rent, and the land was subject to resumption by the state. While the Roman citizens consisted of the three patrician tribes alone, there was no cause for murmur; but when the plebs gradually grew up, and as the infantry of the army was the chief instrument in the acquisition of public land, they naturally claimed to have a share in what was gained. The kings, therefore, were in the habit of assigning small portions of the public land as property to the plebeians, and thus the latter grew, by degrees, to be the only or principal land-owners in the state. After the expulsion of the Tarquinii, a distribution of the crown lands was made among the plebeians; but the loss of the lands beyond the Tiber, and the heavy weight of taxation which fell almost entirely on them, now that the patricians, having gotten the government into their own hands, no longer paid the tenths off the public land, made the plebeians more clearly discern the injustice with which they were treated, and be clamorous for an Agrarian law, *i. e.* a law which was not, as has been erroneously supposed, to take their property from the rich and give it to the poor, but which would make the patricians give up a portion of the public land which they occupied without paying any rent or taxes, to be divided in small lots among those whose blood had purchased it.

The Decemvirs and the Twelve Tables.

After the death of Cassius, the struggles between the orders continued. The Romans were, in fact, two nations within the same walls, so distinct as not even to have the

connubium or right of intermarriage. The plebeians saw that *political* equality was not yet attainable; but they felt the absolute necessity of *legal* equality, and they insisted on a general code of laws being formed. After a most obstinate resistance on the part of the patricians, it was, at length, agreed to appoint ten persons to form a code; and deputies, it is added, were sent to the Greek cities in Italy, and to Athens, to collect their wisest laws, and bring them home for the use of the legislators. B. C. 452.

The legislators were in number ten, hence called Decemvirs. They were all patricians, and invested with unlimited powers; the consulate, tribunate, and quæstorate, were suspended during their magistracy. The decemvirs proved themselves worthy of this confidence. They governed ten days alternately, and each member of the college rendered to those who appealed from the sentence of his colleagues the assistance which the tribunes used to give. They collected all the former traditionary laws, selected those that were salutary, and formed a general code, instead of the former partial and local rights. The two orders were formed into one nation, the patricians and their clients being received into the plebeian local tribes. The Comitia of the centuries were declared to be the sole jurisdiction in capital cases, and any charge affecting liberty and civic rights, and thus the equality of the citizens was decidedly pronounced; for all orders were comprised in these comitia.

The decemvirs having, with honour to themselves and advantage to the state, performed the duties imposed upon them, and drawn up a code in ten tables, laid down their office. But, under pretext of something still remaining to be done, the office was continued for another year, and ten persons, five patricians and five plebeians, chosen. These enacted two more tables, thus making the whole twelve. But they governed with haughtiness and tyranny; the senate stood in awe of them; the people, having now no tribunitian protection, trembled before them, while the younger patricians exulted in the licence given to them, and maintained the

cause of the decemvirs. The year passed,—no sign of their laying down their office: the tyranny seemed intended to be perpetual. The lust of Appius, the chief of them, saved the state. He had seen Virginia, the daughter of Virginius, a centurion, crossing the forum in her way to school; a freedman of his, suborned by him, claimed her as his slave; her lover hastened to the camp to inform her father, who hurried to Rome. Virginia was brought before the tribunal of the decemvir, and by him assigned as a slave to his freedman: her father, seeing the honour of his family about to be stained, caught up a butcher's knife and plunged it into the bosom of his innocent child; then, with the bloody weapon reeking in his hand, hastened to the camp, told his comrades what he had done, and invoked their aid. The army marched to Rome, and thence to the Sacred Mount: the decemvirate was abolished, and the tribunate of the people restored. Appius and Oppius, the most guilty of the decemvirs, died in prison by their own hand; their colleagues went into voluntary exile.

Spurius Mælius.

The consulate was restored; two members of the illustrious houses of the Valerii and the Horatii were the first consuls. They carried laws in favour of plebeian liberty. When their year expired, the tribunes brought in a bill to enable the people to choose, at their option, patrician or plebeian consuls. The chief patricians assembled to consult how to obviate the fancied danger of their order; C. Claudius even proposed to murder the tribunes; his project was rejected with indignation, and the two orders agreed, that, instead of consuls, there should be military tribunes, to be chosen from each order, placed at the head of the government. But the people, as yet, gained not much; for the patricians, by management and union, generally contrived to procure for themselves the whole, or the greater part, of the tribunarian authority. Consuls, too, were frequently chosen, and they and military tribunes alternated.

On the whole, during this period, the rights of the plebeians were advancing; some of their order became military tribunes, the connubium between them and the patricians was established, and thus the bonds of amity and kindness between the orders were drawn more closely. Yet patrician party-spirit and cruelty still occasionally exhibited themselves. A crying sin of the senate of this period was the murder of Sp. Mælius, a plebeian knight, who, in a time of dearth, expended his private fortune in the purchase of corn in Tuscany to distribute among the poor of his order. The senate dreaded the influence of Mælius, and feared that he might make good the claims of his order to a share in the government. He was accused of aiming at the tyranny. The venerable Cincinnatus was created dictator to avert the pretended danger. Mælius was summoned before his tribunal; he saw his enemies bent on his destruction, and took refuge among the people; C. Servilius Ahala, the master of the knights, pursued and cut him down, when he might have seized him and brought him before the dictator's tribunal. Party-spirit applauded the deed; succeeding ages blindly acquiesced in the applause; the enlightened enquirer now beholds it in all its atrocity, and condemns the illegal and iniquitous procedure. The voice of history cries without ceasing, Do no evil, for a time will arrive when the truth, how artfully soever veiled, will come forth and be apparent.

Wars anterior to the Gallic Invasion.

During the period whose internal history we have just been tracing, Rome was not free from external disturbance. In the year 272, a bloody war broke out between Rome and Veii, one of the most powerful of the Etrurian cities. Fortune was rather favourable to the latter, for volunteers flocked from all parts of Etruria to recruit her forces. In these days, the Fabian *gens*, disgusted with the conduct of their fellow patricians, resolved to quit Rome, but still to serve their country. They se-

lected the banks of the Cremera, in the Veientian territory, as the site of a fort; and on the ides of February they marched out of Rome to the number of 306, with their clients, amounting to 4000 or 5000, and settled there. Notwithstanding a peace, they ravaged the country. By a display of booty, the Veientians succeeded in drawing the greater part of them into an ambush, where they were cut to pieces; the fort was then stormed, and the remainder of the garrison put to the sword. Tradition relates that of the entire Fabian gens but one survived—a child who had been left at Rome. The Veientians now carried on the war vigorously against Rome: they fixed their camp on the Janiculum, but were defeated, and their well-stored camp became the prey of the victors.

Almost unceasing warfare prevailed at this period between the Romans, the Latins, and Hernicians on the one side, and the Volscians and the Æquians on the other, without either party acquiring much advantage. A Sabine war, too, terminated in favour of Rome; for a kindred stem, the Samnites, was now extending itself southwards, and drawing to its banners the active and adventurous spirits of the nation.

The truce with Veii having expired, the war again raged. Fidenæ revolted, and joined Veii. The seat of war was now the left bank of the Tiber. The Etrurians advanced to the gates of Rome; they were repulsed, and forced to retire beyond the Anio. Fidenæ was besieged and taken. Another truce for twenty years was made with Veii, and indefinitely protracted. Veii was a peaceable, trading town; her desire was tranquillity. Rome was a nation of soldiers. Veii sought to prolong the truce. Rome, as a hostile race, having burst over the Alps, and overrun the Circumpadanian Etruria, thought she had now a favourable opportunity for conquering her rival, who could not look for aid to the more distant cities of Etruria: she therefore refused to protract the truce. Both sides took arms. Capena and Falerii alone aided Veii. Conquest of territory was the object of the Romans: regular pay was given to the army; a line of forts was drawn around

the hostile town; the siege was extended to a duration equal to that of Troy. Camillus, one of the greatest names in Roman story, commanded, and Veii at length fell, entered by a mine secretly wrought by the besiegers. The Romans were enriched by the spoil. Camillus sullied his glory by secreting a part, for which he went into exile. The taking of Veii is an historical fact; the details are poetic fiction. Who can now believe that the formation of the Emissarius, which still carries off the superfluous waters of the Alban lake, a passage of 3700 paces in length, six feet in height, and three and half in width, was the work of a single year, and executed by a people who had little or no interest in the adjacent lands, and that the fate of a city beyond the Tiber depended on the emission of the waters of that lake? B. C. 393.

The Gauls — Capture of Rome.

Mistress of the Veientian territory, Rome now looked forward to farther conquest in Etruria; but a storm, whose first effects she probably contemplated with complacency, was destined to crush her for a season to the earth. Rome was to fall before the Gauls.

The Kelts now first appear in history. This race, one of the first that occupied Europe, inhabited, at this period, Gaul and Britain, and a great part of Iberia. Attracted by the accounts of the climate and fertility of Italy, a large body of the Gauls passed the Alps, and poured down on the country about the Po; they quickly conquered the Etrurians who dwelt there; the Umbrians submitted; the Gauls extended themselves to the Adriatic, crossed the Apennines, and laid siege to Clusium in Etruria. The Clusians called on the Romans for aid, who sent an embassy to the Gallic camp to offer their mediation. This was rejected by the Gauls. The Roman envoys entered the town, and, neglectful of the laws of nations, took part in a battle. Q. Fabius, one of them, slew a Gallic chief, and was recognised. The Gauls dispatched an embassy to Rome to demand the

surrender of the offenders. This was contumeliously refused. Breathing vengeance, they broke up from before Clusium, and marched for Rome. At the Allia, eleven miles from the city, they met the Roman army.
B. C. 387. A signal defeat rendered the place and the day ever detested in the Roman annals. The Gauls speedily appeared before the walls of the city, forced the gates, and found it deserted, except by a few aged men of consular rank. These they slaughtered in cold blood. The remainder of the people had sought refuge in the neighbouring towns: the Vestal virgins and the sacred things had been conveyed to Cære; the Capitol was occupied by the senate, and about 1000 of the bravest of the patrician youth. An attempt to take the Capitol failed; the Gauls burned the city and employed themselves in plundering excursions into the surrounding country. Autumn, then and now the sickly season at Rome, came on; the besiegers died in heaps, a composition was proposed, and the Gauls finally agreed, for a thousand pounds weight of gold, to evacuate Rome and its territory. Roman vanity invented a tale of Camillus, who had, though in exile, been appointed dictator, coming up with his army as they were in the act of weighing the gold, and so signally defeating the Gauls, that not one survived to carry home the news.

Rebuilding of the City—Manlius.

Rome was a heap of ruins. Veii equalled it in magnitude, and exceeded it in beauty. It was proposed that the Roman people should migrate thither: the senate opposed this project; the people were wavering, when a casual word, taken as an omen, decided them to remain. Within a year the city rose from its ashes with little of beauty or regularity. Veii was demolished to furnish building materials.

War was renewed. The Tarquinienses, a people of Etruria, took the field against the Romans: the Volscians and Æquians were again in arms: the Latins

and Hernicians, though a century had elapsed since Sp. Cassius had formed the league between them and the Romans, separated from them, and were sometimes opposed to them: the Gauls again invaded the Roman territory; yet the fortune of Rome prevailed, and her generals triumphed.

But Rome was internally agitated: the heavy rate of interest, the odious laws of debt, the poverty of the people, and the cruelty of creditors, nearly produced desperation. Touched with compassion, Manlius, the saviour of the Capitol, a man of generous nature, stood forward as the protector of the unfortunate, and even sold a patrimonial estate to relieve their wants. He was charged with defaming the government, and thrown into prison. He was afterwards released, and whether he then meditated plans of vengeance is uncertain; but he finally fell a victim to the envy and tyrannical spirit of his order, who now lorded it uncontrolled over the broken-spirited people. Rome was on the very point of sinking into utter insignificance under the dominion of the short-sighted patricians, when two men arose, who, by firmness and temperance, raised her from her dejection, and placed her in the road which led with certainty to her future grandeur.

The Licinian Rogations.

B. C. 374. In the year of Rome 378, C. Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius were chosen tribunes of the people, and they immediately brought forward their celebrated rogations, which operated such a mighty change in Rome. The supreme magistrates were in that year military tribunes; the people were full of hope, the senate of fear. If the rogations passed the comitia, it might not be safe to refuse assent to them. They sought to avert the danger, and gained over the colleagues of Licinius and Sextius to interpose their veto on the measure. Its authors were not dejected. When the year expired, they refused to allow the election of military tribunes to pro-

ceed. The republic remained for five years in an unsettled state. Licinius and Sextius were re-elected every year, and each year more and more of the friends of the rogations were chosen to be their colleagues. The people were firm to their popular tribunes. The clients had, in the time of the decemvirs, been admitted into the tribes; the influence of the patricians was thereby diminished; they could not, as heretofore, disturb the assembly: no wars could be carried on: the tribunes allowed no one to be imprisoned for debt. Though the neighbouring states remained at peace, yet such a condition of affairs was unsafe. All parties wished to see an end of it, yet the senate would not yield. Twice was the venerable Camillus created dictator against the people, twice did the dictatorial power fail before the tribunarian. Arts, menaces, force, were tried in vain. The senate would willingly have conceded some of the demands. The tribunes incorporated all into one bill, and would have all or none. Camillus, at length, became convinced of the inutility of protracted resistance. He mediated between the orders, and the senate gave their consent to the rogations.

These rogations were, 1. that no more military tribunes should be chosen, but consuls only, and of these one to be a plebeian; 2. that one half of the guardians of the Sibylline books should be plebeians; 3. that in cases of debt, all the interest already paid should be deducted from the capital, and the residue paid in three equal annual instalments; 4. an Agrarian law: of which the principal provisions were, that the public land should have its boundaries marked out; that every Roman citizen should be entitled to enjoy it; that no one should hold more than 500 jugera of it in arable or plantation land, or feed more than 100 head of black, or 500 of small cattle, on the public pasture; that a tenth of the produce of corn-land, a fifth of that of vineyards and plantations, and so much a head grazing-money for cattle should be paid to the state; that this tax should be farmed out every lustrum by the censors, and the

produce of it appropriated to the payment of the army; that the possessors of the public land should be bound to employ free labourers on their land in a rated proportion to their possession.

The plebeians consented that the consular power should be diminished. The jurisdiction was separated from it, and committed to a prætor, whom the patricians insisted should of right belong to their body; and as the prætor ranked with the consuls, and might be styled their colleague, they thus kept two out of three places to themselves. The first plebeian consul was L. Sextius Lateranus, the fellow-tribune of C. Licinius Stolo.

Samnite War.

The period from 389 to 411 was internally spent in efforts, on the side of the patricians, to do away with the Licinian law; externally in various wars with the Gauls, Etruscans, Hernicians, and others; and victory was, as usual, on the side of the Romans.

The Samnites, a mountain race, descended, it is said, from the Sabines, certainly akin to them, had been for some time spreading themselves to the south. They had long since made themselves masters of Capua, the wealthy capital of Campania, where they rapidly degenerated, and sank into luxury. Their mountain brethren became their bitterest enemies. In the year 412, the Campanians, being hard pressed by the Samnites, called upon Rome for alliance and aid. Aid was not refused; the Romans sent an embassy to the Samnites, requesting them to abstain from injuring the allies of Rome. Their interference was haughtily rejected; a combined Roman and Latin army entered Campania. Mount Gaurus, which overhangs the Lucrine lake, was the scene of the first conflict between these two great nations, who fought for the empire of Italy. After a furious conflict, victory declared for Rome. The war was obstinately continued, though to the advantage of the latter. At last Rome,

jealous of Latium, made a peace with the Samnites, in which the Latins refused to join.

The Latin War.

The Latins had long been in close alliance with Rome. In all wars they composed one half of the legions; they were mingled in the manipuli, or companies, and their general commanded alternately with the Roman. Feeling their power, they deemed it just that they should be placed on a footing of perfect equality; their ambassadors repaired to Rome, and proposed to the senate that the two nations should form one, in which Rome should have the supremacy, and which should be denominated from her; that half the senate should be composed of Latins, and one of the consuls be of that nation. These just propositions were rejected with scorn and indignation by the haughty Romans, and war, little less than civil, broke out between the long-united nations.

B. C. 337. The Latins and Campanians were still at war with the Samnites, who were now in alliance with Rome. Four Roman legions, by a rapid march through the mountains, arrived in Campania, and joined the Samnite army. At the foot of Vesuvius, the decisive conflict took place: Samnites were arrayed against Campanians, Romans against Latins, similar arms and tactics against each other. Victory long being doubtful, the front ranks in the left wing of the Romans fell back. The plebeian consul Decius, who had vowed to sacrifice himself for Rome, now performed his vow: consecrated by the pontifex, and clad in his consular robe, he rushed on horseback amidst the ranks of the enemy, and fell covered with wounds. The Latins gave way before the renewed valour of the Romans; and the other consul, Manlius, was equally successful on his side. Scarcely a fourth of the Latin army escaped.

The loss of the flower of her troops effectually debilitated Latium: town after town submitted to the Romans, and a bloody and cruel vengeance was taken by

that haughty people. The people of Latium were divided; some obtained the rank of Roman citizens, others were deprived of their lands and their rights. They were forbidden to hold national diets, or to intermarry or acquire lands in each other's territories; they no longer served in the Roman legions. With the Volscians and Hernicians they formed separate cohorts.

About this time, Q. Publilius Philo, being dictator, had three laws passed which completed the constitution. One of these included the censorship in the higher offices, which were common to the two orders; a second took from the curiæ the power of putting their veto on any law; the third made the plebiscita, or decrees of the tribes, binding on all citizens. By these means, internal discord was ended, and Rome, unretarded by domestic dissensions, could now advance rapidly in the career of universal empire.

War with Pyrrhus.

Rome was now mistress of Etruria, Latium, and Campania. The Samnites had aided her to conquer the Latins; a general league of the Samnites and their kindred mountain tribes was formed against the menacing power of Rome, and a fierce war broke out, in which a Roman army endured the disgrace of passing under the yoke at the Caudine pass; but the disgrace was speedily effaced, and Samnium reduced to submission.

B. C. 282. Tarentum, a rich and luxurious city of Southern Italy, had taken part in this war, and grievously insulted the Romans. Unable to defend themselves, the Tarentines sought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a prince of courage and talent, ready to serve whoever could pay. He had just gained and lost Macedonia; and he now fed himself with the hopes of becoming the Alexander of the West; reckoned on a speedy conquest of Italy; and already, in his ambitious views, anticipated that of Gaul, Spain, and Africa. He therefore willingly acceded to the desire of the Tarentines, and passed over to Italy,

B. C.
280. For the first time the arms and tactics of Greece and Rome came into collision. In the first two battles, fought at Pandosia and Asculum, his military skill and his elephants gained the victory for Pyrrhus; yet with so much loss, that he made proposals of peace to the Romans. They would treat only on condition of his quitting Italy. He then passed over to Sicily; and on his return, after an absence there of three years, he engaged the Romans at Beneventum, and being defeated,
272. went back to Greece, where he met his death, in an attempt on the city of Argos, in the Peloponnesus. The Romans now reduced all Southern Italy; and from the Arno to Rhegium, the whole peninsula obeyed the City.

CHAP. VII.

ROME TILL THE TIME OF THE GRACCHI.

First Punic War.

THE island of Sicily had originally been colonised by the people who inhabited Italy. The Greeks early began to establish colonies there, and many of these rapidly grew up to be powerful states. The Carthaginians also settled there. They held at this period one half of the island, and their power was formidable to the remainder.*

Syracuse was the chief of the Grecian colonies. Its founders were Dorians; its constitution was therefore at first aristocratic; but it was a trading city, and did not long continue to be so governed. The beneficent Gelo, at the time when Greece was assailed by Persia, possessed
406. the supreme power in Syracuse. Six years after the fatal expedition of the Athenians against it, Syracuse fell under the dominion of Dionysius, an able, talented, and, if we credit a modern historian, a useful prince. He left his power to his son, of the same name, who inherited not

* See Carthage, p. 62.

B. C.

his good qualities. His cousin Dion, and then the Co- 367.
rinthian Timoleon, overthrew his power. The Syracusans had not virtue enough to retain their recovered freedom. Agathocles, a man of splendid talents, seized the supreme power. He was the terror of his foes, and formidable even to the Carthaginians. Close pressed in war by them, he adopted the bold resolution of carrying the war into their own country. He passed over to Africa, and appeared before the walls of Carthage. He died in a good old age, full of fame, but childless. 289.

On his death Syracuse fell into confusion. Pyrrhus was invited over from Italy to no purpose. The Mamertines, a portion of the mercenary troops whom Agathocles had had in pay, seized on the city of Messina, and murdered the inhabitants: the Syracusans allied themselves with the Carthaginians against them; the Mamertines applied for support to the Romans. After some delay, occasioned by the flagrant injustice of the Mamertine cause, interest prevailed over principle, and the required aid was promised. Thus began the first of those wars called Punic. 264.

Rome was mistress of all Italy, except what was held in the north by the Gauls: Carthage was in the height of her power, possessed of a large portion of Africa, Spain, and Sicily, and of Sardinia, and other islands. Rome's civil constitution was in its vigour; that of Carthage in its decline: Rome's troops were free-born citizens; those of Carthage mercenaries: Rome had no fleet; that of Carthage was numerous. Such was the relative state of the two nations when they descended into the arena.

The Romans determined to have a fleet. A Carthaginian ship of war, that was driven on shore, served as a model: the crews were taught to row on land. Inferior to their foes in the art of manœuvring their vessels, they invented machines for grappling, and bringing a sea to resemble a land-fight. The consul Duillius won the first naval victory. The Romans were already victorious in Sicily. The consul Regulus, in imitation

of Agathocles, carried the war into Africa, and spread terror to the gates of Carthage. A Spartan mercenary, named Xanthippus, was opposed to him. Roman courage failed before Grecian skill, and Regulus and his army surrendered. National hatred invented a lying tale of Punic cruelty and Roman virtue, in the person of this unhappy general. A signal defeat, off the Ægatian islands, forced the Carthaginians to sue for peace, and a war of twenty-three years terminated by their giving up all Sicily, and paying a large sum of money.

B. C. 241.

Illyrian War—Gallic War.

The Illyrians, a people inhabiting the north-eastern coast of the Adriatic, were addicted to piracy. The Italian merchants complained of their losses at Rome: ambassadors were sent to Illyria to remonstrate: the ambassadors were ill-treated, and some of them murdered. Rome took up arms to avenge them, and to put down piracy. The Illyrian queen, Teuta, was compelled to surrender a large portion of her dominions, to reduce her shipping, and to pay an annual tribute.

The Senonian Gauls possessed the rich plains watered by the Po; the Ligurians, the rugged hills west and south of them. Rome engaged in war with both: the former were completely subdued, after a hard contest, in which they were aided by their kindred tribes from beyond the Alps. The battle of Clusium decided the fate of Cisalpine Gaul. Defended by their mountains, the Ligurians, often overcome, were long unconquered. They were a hardy active race, who lived by feeding cattle, and by hiring out their services in war.

225.

Second Punic War.

The Carthaginians now turned their views to conquests in Spain. Their troops were commanded by the great Amilcar, on whose death the army chose for their commander his son-in-law Asdrubal; and on *his* death

Amilcar's son, Annibal, now but twenty-six years old, who had been reared in the camp, and was the sworn foe of Rome. All his thoughts were turned on war against that republic: he attacked Saguntum, a city in alliance with Rome, took it, after an obstinate but unavailing defence, marched with a numerous, veteran, and well-appointed army through the Pyrenees and Gaul to the confluence of the Rhone and Isère, passed through the country of the Allobroges, crossed the Alps, and descended into the modern Piedmont. He defeated the Romans on the banks of the Ticinus, then on those of the Trebia, next at the Trasimene lake in Tuscany, and finally gave them an overthrow at Cannæ in Apulia, worthy to be compared with those of Syracuse, Leuctra, and Arbela. But here his career of victory ended. The Roman armies hitherto opposed to him had been militia, their generals rash and inexperienced. The chief command was now given to Fabius the Delayer, who would never come to a general engagement, but hovered about and harassed the Punic army, and raised the courage of his own. Yet Annibal, though opposed by a faction at home, and ill supplied with men and money, kept possession of the fairest portion of Italy during fifteen years.

Rome gradually recovered her strength; her courage had never failed: she sent an army to Spain, which was at first resisted with success; but under the command of the youthful, virtuous, and heroic Scipio overcame the troops of Carthage. Annibal was repeatedly checked in Italy; Gracchus conquered Sardinia; Syracuse, which had now gone against Rome, was, though defended by the machines of the great Archimedes, taken by Marcellus; and Annibal's last hope,—the army led to his assistance from Spain by his brother Asdrubal,—was annihilated on the banks of the Metaurus by Tiberius Nero. Scipio at length passed with his victorious army over to Africa, and Annibal was recalled to the defence of his country. On the plains of Zama a battle was fought between the two greatest generals of the age, and the

B. C.
202. fate of Carthage was decided. Annibal was defeated for the first time; Carthage was forced to sue for peace. Rigorous terms were imposed; she was confined to Africa, obliged to surrender her ships, prohibited engaging in war, and compelled to yield Numidia to Masinissa, the ally of Rome.

The Macedonian and Syrian Wars.

Rome now possessed all Italy, Sicily, and the other islands, and a part of Spain. Her arms now, for the first time, show themselves in Greece. Carthage being reduced, Philip, king of Macedon, was the prince who could give Rome most disturbance. Philip, though he had made an alliance with Annibal, imprudently neglected to assist him; he wasted his strength in petty conflicts in Greece, and, instead of uniting the people of that country, unwisely put them in fear for their independence. The Ætolians called on the Romans for aid, who came forward as
197. the champions of Grecian liberty. The battle of Cynocephalæ overthrew the power of Macedon. Philip had to sue for peace, and Rome proclaimed liberty to Greece — a nominal, deceptive liberty, like the independence she had left to Carthage: she would fain be mistress of the world, without the world discerning its subjection.

Thoas, the Ætolian, thought himself not sufficiently rewarded for his services by the Romans. He betook himself to Antiochus the Great, king of Syria; represented to him the danger to be apprehended from suffering the Romans thus to go on extending their power, a power the more to be suspected, as they were the known foes of kings; and exhorted the monarch to lose no time in opposing their farther progress. His representations were enforced by Annibal, who, driven by a faction favourable to Rome from his own country, where he was endeavouring by salutary reforms and wise regulations to restore Carthage to a condition of resuming her former rank, was now at the court of Antiochus. Their suggestions were listened to with a willing ear; war was

declared: Asia arrayed against Rome; but fortunately for the latter, the counsels of Annibal, respecting the mode of conducting the war, were not attended to.

Antiochus was by far the most powerful monarch of Asia; his sway was acknowledged from the Troas to Caucasus: Media, Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine obeyed him. But the small force of 10,000 men with which he appeared in Greece did not correspond with his supposed might. He made lavish promises, wasted his time in luxury, gave the Roman consul time to land and enter Thessaly; and a defeat at Thermopylæ drove him from Greece. The Romans pursued him into Asia. Another decisive victory at Magnesia reduced the Syrian monarch to seek a peace, the conditions of which were the surrender of all Lesser Asia, as far as Mount Taurus, and of the half of his ships. B. C. 190.

Conquest of Macedon.

Philip had put to death the better of his two sons: learning when too late his innocence, he died of grief. His successor, Perseus, vainly hoped to restore Macedon to its pristine strength and dignity, and he wanted to engage its forces once more in conflict with those of Rome. But Paulus Æmilius, the Roman general, overcame all obstacles presented by the nature of the country. The battle of Pydna, in which 20,000 Macedonians fell, was decisive. Perseus was seized with a panic; he fled from his kingdom, and sheltered himself in Samothrace, where he meanly surrendered himself to his enemies. In the 156th year after the death of Alexander the Great, the last king of his paternal kingdom walked in the triumphal procession of the general of a nation which had not, at that time, attracted the attention of Greece. Perseus died in prison. Macedonia was declared free, under the protection of Rome. Fifteen years afterwards, a commotion was raised in that state by one Andriscus, who called himself the son of Perseus. The Romans were 168.

obliged to send an army thither, and the kingdom was reduced to a Roman province.

In these times Rome began to interest herself in the affairs of Egypt. Egyptian ambassadors appeared in the senate-house, imploring the interference of Rome to prevent Antiochus, king of Syria, from making a conquest of that country. Ambassadors were despatched thither by the senate, and at their mandate Antiochus withdrew.

B. C. 167.

Third Punic War.

The period fixed by Providence to the duration of Carthage now approached. Civil dissensions, the sure forerunners of national ruin, ran high. Forty senators, driven from the city, besought Masinissa, of Numidia, to effect their restoration. His mediation was spurned by the dominant faction. The affair was brought before the Roman senate, who decided according to the wishes of Masinissa, and the pretext was gladly laid hold on for destroying their once formidable rival.

The Carthaginians were ordered to surrender all the arms they possessed: they obeyed, and carried them to the Roman camp. They were then ordered to quit Carthage, and to build for themselves a new city in the interior, afar from the sea. This ruthless command to leave their temples and the tombs of their fathers, and the scene of all their ancient glory, was too much; the people were driven to desperation; the senate swore to stand or fall with Carthage; and war, now inevitable, was prepared for. Every exertion was made to replace the lost arms; all the timber that could be collected was brought to the dock-yards; all metals, noble and ignoble, holy or profane, were melted down for the making of arms; even the women cut off their long hair, that it might be twisted into bow-strings for the defenders of their country; the temples were made workshops; all ages, ranks, and sexes took share in the common danger. Three years long did the ill-fated city hold out with amazing perseverance against all the efforts of the Ro-

mans. More than once were the legions repulsed; for their leaders were men of little ability, and their discipline was relaxed. At length the young Scipio was appointed to the command of the besieging army, and his genius triumphed over the ingenious devices of the besieged. By stratagem he gained the harbour; yet the city, though now open and defenceless, maintained, for six days and nights, an obstinate resistance. A party at length declared for the Romans; the city was set on fire by its own citizens, as it would appear, that it might not become a provincial town to Rome. The inhabitants slew themselves on the tombs of their fathers, in the citadel and in the temples of their gods: the city burned seventeen days; and the heretofore mistress of the sea, the town which had numbered 700,000 inhabitants, which had flourished for nearly 1000 years, sank, never again to rise with independence. B. C. 146.

Achæan War.

Greece, though nominally free, very soon saw that she had made an ill exchange, in getting the Roman instead of the Macedonian power into her neighbourhood. When Macedon had been reduced to a Roman province, the Romans sought to make Greece equally dependent. Already they had carried away 1000 of the principal Achæans to Italy: they resolved to put an end to all union and confederacy in Greece; and they required that Sparta, Corinth, and other places, should be separated from the League. Diæus, the general of the League, excited the people; the Roman envoys who came the next year were publicly insulted at Corinth; and the thoughtless people rushed headlong into a war that must be their ruin.

Critolaus, the general of the League, attempted to defend Thermopylæ; but he retired before Metellus, his troops were routed in Locris, and he himself perished. Diæus then, with 14,000 men, took his post at Corinth, but the consul Mummius cut them to pieces. Diæus fled home to Megalopolis; collected his wife and children;

distributed poison among them; and he and they perished, not to behold the slavery of their country. Co-
B. C. rinth was taken by L. Mummius, in the same year that
146. Carthage fell before Scipio. Its pictures, statues, plate, and treasures were shipped for Rome; all the grown men were put to death, the women and children sold for slaves, and the city itself burned. A similar fate befell Thebes and Chalcis in Eubœa. Greece became, under the name of Achaia, a Roman province; her glory departed; and for nearly 2000 years she has been a stranger to independence.

The Spanish Wars.

Spain was originally inhabited by nations of Keltic and of Iberian race. Its people were distinguished by valour, talent, steadiness, and perseverance: it had been, from the most remote ages, resorted to by the Phœnicians for the produce of its mines and its soil; the Greeks early visited it; the Carthaginians made themselves masters of a considerable portion of it. During the second Punic war, all their possessions in Spain fell to the victorious Romans.

After the conquest of Carthage and Corinth, the Romans began to turn their view to Spain. They attacked the Lusitanians; but this valiant people, headed by Viriatus, a man of distinguished bravery, prudence, and virtue, long bid defiance to the arms of the Romans, who now were so far degenerated from their pristine virtue, as not to blush at employing treachery to accomplish their objects, and Viriatus perished by assassins hired by Rome. The town of Numantia, with a garrison of but 4000 men, long withstood some of Rome's ablest generals, and often compelled the legions to withdraw. Even the great Scipio, the conqueror of Carthage, could hardly boast of having taken this heroic town. Famine preyed on the inhabitants; the Roman general would give no opportunity for battle; in despair they set fire to the town, and threw themselves into the flames. The Ro-

B. C.
mans stormed the walls, and found all desolate and 133.
silent.

In several parts of Spain various tribes maintained their independence for another century. They fought long and obstinately; but they had no confederacies. Each tribe fought and fell alone; and gradually the whole country fell under the dominion of Rome, now grown thoroughly corrupt and tyrannical.

CHAP. VIII.

ROME TILL THE END OF THE REPUBLIC.

The Gracchi.

ROME had conquered Greece. The last will of Attalus, king of Pergamus, gave her Lesser Asia. The gift was destructive. Grecian and Asiatic corruption and vice proved too strong for Roman virtue. We are no more to look for the noble qualities that adorned the golden ages of the republic. Wealth and power are henceforth the claims to the high offices of the state; corruption and extortion the characteristics of magistrates and governors. Blood, which for centuries had not stained the streets of Rome, was now shed without remorse. The political condition of Rome was most deplorable: the power of conferring all the important offices in the state lay with the lower orders of the people, on account of their numbers, and the low elective qualification; and they were venal and corrupt, while immense wealth was accumulated in the hands of a few of the nobles, who thus formed an oligarchy in a democracy.

In the early days of the republic, when the Roman people were divided into the two separate orders of patricians and plebeians, nothing could be more just than the Agrarian laws, such as we have described them above.* It

* See p. 72.

was but reasonable that the plebeians should share in the lands purchased with their blood; it was but just that all orders should contribute to the public revenue. But, in the present period, the distinction between patrician and plebeian could hardly be said to exist; and if there was a difference, it was, that the great preponderance of landed property was on the side of the latter. This property had been possessed undisturbed for generations; it had often been acquired by purchase, by inheritance, or by marriage. Yet, though their estates might have been legally acquired, the unfeeling rapacity of the nobles, in cruelly expelling the old tenants, whose fathers had for generations dwelt on their lands, to throw their little farms into pasture-land, was such as must have excited indignation in any generous bosom. The Romans were now, like a modern nation, divided into rich and poor, without the latter having the resource which the poor of modern times have, of following a trade or going to service. Trade was esteemed beneath a free-born citizen; slaves precluded the ne-
B. C. cessity of hired labour. No remedy remained but a
133. measure of very dubious policy.

Tib. Sempronius Gracchus, the grandson of the great Scipio, being one of the tribunes of the people, proposed a return to the Agrarian laws of the state, as a remedy for the present evils. He called on the men of wealth to give up all the public land they possessed beyond the 500 jugera allowed by the Licinian law, and half that quantity for each of their sons, that it might be divided among the poorer citizens. At the same time, he offered to remunerate them for the money they had laid out on the lands to be surrendered. When the treasures of Attalus of Pergamus were brought to Rome, Gracchus further required that they should be divided among those who were to get lands.

Gracchus was a man of many noble qualities, but, looking to the end, he was not sufficiently regardful of means. He ejected by force, from the tribuneship, one of his colleagues, who was opposed to his measures.

He then had his law passed by the people; and himself, his brother, and his father-in-law chosen triumvirs, for carrying it into execution. As his opponents made no secret of their intention to take vengeance on him when out of office, he resolved, as a means of security, to have himself re-elected. Every opposition was made by the men of wealth; and on the day of election Scipio Nasica, who was a large holder of the public land, placed himself on the steps ascending to the Capitol, and called on every one who valued his country to come to him. The senate, the knights, and several other citizens, ranged themselves on his side. A tumult arose, in which Tib. Gracchus lost his life, and blood was shed in civil contention for the first time since the enactment of the Twelve Tables.

Ten years after the death of Tib. Gracchus, his brother Caius, a man of genius and eloquence superior to his, renewed his plans. He proposed, that, in conformity with the Licinian law*, no citizen should hold more than five hundred jugera of land; that all Cisalpine Gaul should be reckoned part of Italy, and have the same rights; that corn should be sold to the people at an extremely low price; that colonies should be founded, and roads made through Italy; that the right of sitting as judges should be taken from the senate and transferred to the knights. It is difficult to conceive how the plain consequences of such measures could have escaped the penetration of a man of the genius of C. Gracchus. His views may have been personal; he may have been led away by passion; possibly he was only attempting a desperate remedy for an evil that was inevitable — the corruption and debasement of the Roman people. B. C. 123.

His plans seemed calculated to engage the knights, the people, and all Italy in his favour; yet he met with little support. The senate gave absolute power to the consul, Opimius, his personal enemy, who set a price on

* See p. 79. It is almost needless to observe, that the Licinian law related only to *possession* in the public land. It set no limit to the acquisition of landed or any other species of *property*.

B. C. 121. his head; and Caius Gracchus also lost his life, and his fate was shared by three thousand of his adherents.

Jugurthine War — Cimbric War.

Micipsa, son of Masinissa, king of Numidia, when dying, left his kingdom to his sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and to his nephew, Jugurtha. The latter murdered his cousins, and seized on the whole kingdom. War was declared against him by the Romans. At Rome, whither he had come, after the murder of Adherbal, on the summons of the senate, he bribed to a great extent; and having become convinced that every one there had his price, the conduct of the first generals sent against him confirmed him in his belief. But, at last, the command was conferred on Metellus, a man of noble birth. The arts of Jugurtha failed against him; he had reduced the Numidian to the last extremity, when party-spirit at home transferred the consulate, and the glory of terminating the war, to his lieutenant Marius, a man of mean extraction, son of a peasant of Arpinum. Jugurtha was led in triumph, and then starved to death in prison.

B. C. 106.

Now began those irruptions of the northern nations, which were destined, at length, to overturn the empire of Rome. The Romans had already made themselves masters of the principal passes of the Alps; a Roman province extended from the foot of the Alps to that of the Pyrenees; the Allobroges and the Arverni, nations inhabiting the present Savoy, Dauphiné, and Auvergne, had been reduced. While the arms of Rome were employed against Numidia, northern tribes, named Cimbri, Teutones, Ambrones, and Tigurini, laid waste the banks of the Danube and Gaul. They were encountered by the Roman legions under the consul Carbo. The Roman arms met a defeat. Armies commanded by Silanus, Scaurus, and Cassius shared a similar fate. Cæpio and Manlius were overthrown with prodigious slaughter; and Italy trembled as in the days of Annibal.

Rome's only hope lay in Marius: he was chosen consul. He marched in person against the Teutones who were in Gaul; his colleague, Catulus, went against the Cimbri, who were entering Italy by the Rhætian Alps. Marius encountered and defeated the Teutones with tremendous slaughter at Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix), and then marched to the assistance of his colleague. At Vercellæ, on the Athesis, the combined Roman armies engaged the wild hordes of the Cimbri. The conflict was long and bloody. Victory declared for Rome, 120,000 Cimbri lay on the plain, numerous prisoners were taken and sold for slaves, and the consuls entered Rome in triumph. B. C. 102. 101.

State of Rome — Social or Marsian War.

The demagogues were now dominant at Rome. They had made Marius consul in opposition to the noble Metellus. Marius allied himself closely with the tribune Saturninus, who had murdered his competitor on the day of election. Metellus quitted Rome, and retired to Rhodes. Memmius stood for the consulate, but Saturninus's ruffians murdered him on the day of consular election. Marius, however, took the side of justice, and the tribune was torn to pieces. Such was the state of Rome: no man's life was safe who opposed the demagogues. In the provinces matters were not much better. The knights, who now formed a distinct order in the state, were in number 3900: since the time of C. Gracchus, they had exercised the judicial power. They, moreover, farmed the revenues of the provinces, and extorted and oppressed the people in the most nefarious manner, while no redress could be obtained, as it was to themselves, in their capacity of judges, that all appeals for justice lay.

A private quarrel between Cæpio and Drusus brought the senate and the knights into conflict. The knights warmly espoused the cause of the former. Drusus saw the necessity of endeavouring to deprive them of their power, and of restoring the constitution. It was of importance to gain the people to his side; he proposed

the formation of new colonies, the division of some districts. The morals of Drusus were pure, his views were noble; but the senate, for whose advantage he was labouring, did not comprehend his object, and opposed him. Finding senate and knights united against him, he saw that he must look abroad for support. He promised the freedom of the city to all Italy; he brought in a law for the assignment of lands, another to regulate the price of corn, and a third to divide the judicial power between the senate and the knights. As he was returning home, attended by an immense concourse of people, he was stabbed by an unknown hand.

The Italians came to Rome to claim their civic rights. They had been a chief mean of extending the dominion of the city, as their contingents had always far out-numbered the legions: they deemed it, therefore, but just they should share in its advantages. Their desire was haughtily rejected. Seeing they had no hopes from the justice and generosity of Rome, they resolved to become independent of her. An extensive confederacy was formed among the nations of Sabellian race, and the people of Umbria, Tuscany and other parts, inclined to favour them. War was declared against Rome. Corfinium was made their capital. Large armies were sent against the confederates: the Roman generals were defeated. Never was a war more obstinate or more bloody. The greatest generals of Rome were sent against the enemy: victory and defeat alternated. Cruelties and massacres of the most barbarous character were exercised. The war, which cost the lives of 300,000 men, was only ended by a concession which, in the first instance, would have prevented it. One by one the allies were granted full civic rights, and all Italians became citizens of Rome.

B. C. 90.

Mithridatic and Civil Wars.

Mithridates VI., king of Pontus*, the ablest and most powerful enemy Rome ever encountered, now

* See p. 56.

appears as her opponent. This monarch was respected and admired for his great gifts of mind, and he had an army habituated, in its conflicts with the nations round the Euxine, to privation and danger.

Just as the Romans were terminating the Social War, intelligence arrived of the massacre, in one day, of 80,000 Roman citizens, resident in the towns of Lesser Asia. The Roman army in that country was unable to stand before the troops of Mithridates; its generals were taken and put to death with insult. The isles of the Ægean and Greece itself were reduced to the Pontic monarch.

L. Sulla, a member of a reduced patrician family, had been the lieutenant, and was now the rival of Marius. He was besieging the city of Nola, one of those of the allies, when he was appointed to conduct the war against Mithridates. Marius, though now seventy years old, could not endure that his rival should have this honour. He had the decree recalled, and himself appointed. Sulla, on receiving this intelligence, broke up from before Nola, and, for the first time, a Roman army marched against the city. At the head of 26,000 men he entered Rome, which he had called for torches to set fire to. Marius was forced to fly; he, his son, and ten of his adherents were, by orders of Sulla, declared public enemies. Marius concealed himself in the Minturnian marsh, but was taken and thrown into prison at Minturnæ. A Cimbrian slave was sent to put him to death; but, terrified at the look and the voice of the conqueror of his countrymen, he cast down his weapon and fled. Marius escaped to Africa.

Sulla hastened over to Greece, all of which submitted to him. Athens alone shut her gates, and was gallantly defended by Archelaus, Mithridates's general: he, however, soon retreated to Bœotia, and an engagement took place near Chæronea, in which the Pontic troops were totally defeated. Another battle followed at Orchomenus, which was equally fatal to the interests of Mithridates, who now sued for peace; and Sulla, who,

in consequence of tidings from Italy, was in haste to return thither, readily consented, promising to secure Mithridates in his paternal dominions, and have him entitled a friend and ally of Rome, that monarch agreeing to surrender Bithynia, Cappadocia, and Asia.

Sulla had left the consulate in the hands of Octavius and Cinna. The latter introduced confusion anew into the city: he was expelled by his colleague: he collected an army, and menaced the senate. Eight new tribes had been formed out of the citizens of such towns as had abandoned the Marsian league, and Cinna, by promising to distribute them into the old tribes, so that these should have no pre-eminence, soon saw himself at the head of a numerous army. To strengthen himself still more, he recalled Marius, and various motives armed almost all Italy in favour of the veteran general. The army of the elder Pompeius was defeated near the gates of Rome. Marius, Cinna, Carbo, and Sertorius entered the city. The consul Octavius still defended the Vatican hill; but his head was soon seen borne on a spear through the streets. Marius then issued his orders for the slaughter of the principal senators: some were slain in their own houses, some betrayed by their clients. The high-priest of Jupiter was slaughtered at the altar of his god. Catulus, the colleague of Marius in the Cimbric war, was compelled to be his own destroyer. The head of Antonius, the great orator, was brought to Marius as he sat at supper: he took and handled it, and embraced with joy the murderer. Having thus, with tiger-ferocity, glutted his vengeance, and made himself with Cinna B. C. 86. consul for the seventh time, he expired in the 70th year of his age, fortunate in thus escaping the vengeance of his rival.

Sulla, having ended the Mithridatic war, was now returning home in triumph. He landed in Apulia, and marched his troops with good order and discipline towards Rome. He was met by the flying consulars, and professed his intention to restore the senate to their legal rights. Cinna led an army against him, but was slain

in an uproar by his own soldiers. Sulla overthrew the army of Norbanus, at Canusium: the army of L. Scipio went over to him. Cnæus Pompeius joined him with his father's clients. One of his officers gained possession of Sardinia. The Marian prætor of Africa was in an insurrection burnt in his own house. Meanwhile, at the desire of the younger Marius, the prætor Damasippus assembled the senate of Roms to make proposals of peace. All the citizens of rank then in Rome met in the Hostilian curia. Damasippus then, as directed by Marius, seized and put to death L. Domitius, P. Carbo, and others of Sulla's party. Q. Mucius Scævola, the chief pontiff, was pursued and butchered at the temple of Vesta.

Sulla entered Rome: his entrance was the signal for the slaughter of all the Marian party, of all whom he himself or any of his partisans hated. That the slaughter might proceed regularly, proscription-tables were now introduced into Rome: these presented to view the names of at first 80, then 500 men of rank, whose murder was enjoined, and whose murderers were to be rewarded by the possession of their estates, while their children were to lose all claims to public office. Wealth soon became crime, where murder was gain. Blood had flowed in the days of Marius; it now streamed. Eight thousand of the Marian party had surrendered: by order of Sulla, they were massacred near the senate-house. The cries of the victims were so loud that the senate could not go on with their deliberations. "They are only," said Sulla, "some wretches who are punished for their crimes."

Young Marius defended Præneste with a heroism worthy of his father. The heads of Damassipus and some of his other friends were exposed before the walls of Præneste; and, seeing no hopes of escape, Marius and a friend voluntarily slew each other: the town was taken, and its defenders put to the sword. Cnæus Pompeius took and put to death Carbo in Sicily. Norbanus was driven to suicide in Rhodes. The sole authority of Sulla was undisputed, save in Spain: he exercised it with ruthless atrocity. One of his most zealous adherents, the prætor

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Ofella, who had taken Præneste, venturing to stand for the consulship without the permission of Sulla, was slain in the forum by his command. When the people testified marks of indignation, he stepped forward and merely said, "I ordered it." The proscription still raged; wives shut the doors against their own husbands; children slew their own fathers: death was the only refuge from cruelty.

The war between Marius and Sulla cost the lives of 33 consulars, 7 prætors, 60 ædiles, 200 senators, and 150,000 Roman citizens, and thousands were stript of their paternal possessions, and driven forth to wander in misery. Sulla divided among his legions the lands and properties of the Marians: he renewed and made perpetual in his own person the dictatorship, now out of use 120 years; sought to bring back the republic to its old form, when all power lay with the patricians; deprived the tribunes of the people of the right of proposing laws, completed the reduced senate from the equestrian order, increased, for the advantage of his friends, the colleges of pontiffs and augurs. Suddenly, in the very plenitude of his power, he abdicated it, and retired into private life. He resigned himself undisturbed to mental and sensual enjoyments, employing his leisure
B. C. in writing the history of his own life. He died just as he
78. had completed the 22d book. His resignation of power is an act almost unexampled: it gives a strong idea of the man and the times, to thus behold him, who had made blood run like water, passing his latter days in tranquillity at Puteoli.

From the Death of Sulla to that of Mithridates.

Sertorius, one of the Marian party, had retired to Spain: he put himself at the head of the Lusitanians, whose respect and affections he had gained, established among them a miniature of the Roman republic, and during eight years he defeated every army sent against him by the Romans. Neither Metellus nor Pompeius

availed to subdue him; treachery alone could free Rome from this enemy. Perpenna, one of his officers, conspired against him, and slew him at a banquet. B. C. 72.

While Sertorius maintained himself in Spain, a furious war raged in the south of Italy. A few gladiators broke out of their school at Capua; their leader was Spartacus, a Thracian by birth; slaves, pirates, peasants flocked to them; they soon increased to such a number as to be formidable to Rome. Consular armies were sent against them without success; four Roman armies were defeated by the gladiator. At length Crassus was sent to oppose him; victory was long dubious, but finally declared for Rome. The whole of the rebel army was cut to pieces or dispersed: its leader fell on heaps of slaughtered Romans. The bodies of 40,000 rebels lay on the field.

At this period arose in Lesser Asia a pirate-society, resembling the buccaneers of modern times. Cilicians, Isaurians, and people of other Asiatic regions, engaged in piracy on an extensive scale: their ships swarmed in the Mediterranean; the coasts of Italy were infested by them. No Roman was safe at his country-seat; no magistrate on his journey. They ventured even to attack the Roman legions, put a stop to foreign commerce, and reduced Rome to danger of famine, by intercepting the supplies of corn. Several Roman commanders were sent against them; they were beaten, but not conquered. At last Cnœus Pompeius was intrusted with the conduct of the war, and with unlimited power over the Mediterranean and its coasts. He swept the sea of them in the short space of forty days, pursued them to their retreats, forced them to submit, and transported them far inland into the continent. 67.

During the lifetime of Sulla, a second war had broken out with Mithridates, and been terminated to the advantage of Rome. When Nicomedes of Bithynia bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, Mithridates disputed their right to it, and entered it with a large army. The command of the Roman army was intrusted

to Lucullus, a man long retired from military affairs, and devoted to the arts of peace. He is said to have acquired his knowledge of this war, and the mode of conducting it, from books and conversation on his way to Asia. His deeds prove that a mind used to thinking can soon master any difficulties. The war was a constant succession of victories on the side of the Romans. Mithridates was forced to apply to Tigranes, king of Armenia. Lucullus, in a bloody battle, overthrew, with hardly any loss on his own side, the troops of Armenia, and made himself master of Tigranocerta, the capital of Tigranes. He now had the full prospect of bringing to a glorious termination the war against one of the ablest enemies Rome had ever encountered, when Pompeius arrived to rob him of the honour. The new general carried on the war with vigour: he reduced Tigranes to sue for peace, and drove Mithridates to take refuge among the wild tribes north of the Euxine. The spirit of the Pontic monarch was not yet broken: he meditated a union of the nations dwelling from the Tanais to the Alps, and of invading Italy at the head of them. His troops were terrified at his projects; his son conB. C. 63. spired against him, and Mithridates, justly styled the Great, died by poison administered by his own hand, in the 72d year of his age. During 25 years he had carried on an obstinate war against Rome, had withstood the fortune of Sulla, the zeal of several consuls, the wisdom of Lucullus, and the rapidity of Pompeius, and was finally overcome only by ingratitude and treason.

Pompeius deprived Tigranes of Syria, Cilicia, and Phœnicia, which became subject to Rome. He marched southwards, and reduced Judæa. All Asia being now subdued, he returned to Italy, where he disbanded his troops on landing, to quiet the apprehensions of the people. He was honoured with a splendid triumph, and he brought into the public treasury a sum of 20,000 talents.

Catiline's Conspiracy.

While Pompeius was absent in the East, Rome ran imminent risk of seeing days worse than those of Marius and Sulla, and crimes of equal or greater enormity perpetrated. L. Sergius Catilina, a man of patrician extraction, but of profligate manners and ruined fortunes, conceived hopes of being able to overthrow the constitution. Several men of high rank were concerned in this conspiracy. Catiline stood for the consulship, but failed, M. Tullius Cicero, the illustrious orator, being chosen. His designs being discovered, he became desperate, and resolved on the murder of the consul and the principal senators, and setting fire to the city; but information of all his projects was given to the consul, and Catiline was at length obliged to leave Rome, and put himself at the head of such forces as he had been able to bring together. His accomplices at Rome were meanwhile discovered and executed, and he himself engaging with the army sent against him, fought and fell with a heroism worthy of a better cause. B. C. 63.

The Gallic War of Cæsar.

At this period the leading men in Rome were Pompeius, named the Great, and flushed with his victories; Crassus, distinguished for his riches, and the conqueror of Spartacus; Cæsar, a man of noble birth, distinguished talents, ruined fortune, and now father-in-law of Pompeius; Cato, of pre-eminent virtue, unstained character, and only to be blamed (if blame could attach to such a principle) for not being able to accommodate himself to the manners of the times, and of thus being unable to render more real service to his country; and, lastly, Cicero, the crusher of the projects of Catiline, the ablest orator, the most accomplished and virtuous statesman, only unhappy in a want of firmness and decision of character.

The ambition of the three former could not be restrained by the virtue and moderation of the two last. Already Cæsar and Crassus had been more than suspected of being privy to the plans of Catiline, trusting

that, through their superior character, talents, and influence, they might be able to seize on the supreme power, when his ruthless ferocity had removed all obstacles and all competitors. Cæsar had been afterwards prætor in Spain, and had there repaired his dilapidated fortune. On his return to Rome he had been made consul, and while in office he caused several laws to be passed, which gratified and increased his influence with Pompeius, the knights, and the people. He took occasion to reconcile Pompeius, who was married to his daughter, with Crassus, whose wealth gave him great power with the people, and the three formed among themselves that coalition or secret compact of mutual support and mutual regard to each other's interest, known under the name of the Triumvirate.

Cæsar, on the expiration of his consulate, had himself appointed for five years to the government of the Gauls. Cisalpine Gaul had long been a part of Italy. The Romans had first entered Transalpine Gaul B. C. 123., and shortly after reduced the south-eastern part of it to the form of a province.

Gaul was divided into a number of independent states, some of a more, some of a less warlike character. The most powerful race were the Belgians, who dwelt from the Alps northwards to the sea, mingled with tribes of Germanic race. The Helvetii, a portion of these, dwelling at the foot of Mount Jura, gave the Roman governor the wished-for opportunity of increasing his military fame and power, and of securing the tranquillity of Italy. United with several German tribes, they set fire to their dwellings, and in an immense body set forth to pass the Jura in search of more smiling lands. Cæsar hastened to Geneva, pursued them, and brought them to an engagement, in which Roman tactics and discipline speedily triumphed over ignorant courage. He followed their enfeebled forces, and compelled them to surrender. They were received as allies, and a colony was placed, for future security, at the principal pass of Jura.

B. C. 58.

In some parts of Gaul confederacies were formed against the Romans, in others oppressed states called on Cæsar for protection: one after another the confederacies and the states fell before his genius. During a command of ten years (for, by the influence of Pompeius, it had been prolonged) he reduced the entire of Gaul, crossed the Rhine, carried the arms of Rome into Germany for the first time, and passed the channel which divides from the continent the island of Britain, hitherto known only by name to the inhabitants of Italy.

Each day filled Rome with wonder by the intelligence that arrived of the victories of Cæsar in Gaul. His influence and the number of his partisans in Rome were great. He aided Pompeius and Crassus to get the consulate: he was continued in his Gallic command. Pompeius took Africa and Spain as his province; Crassus preferred the wealthy, luxurious Syria. Pompeius remained at Rome, and administered his provinces by lieutenants. Crassus hastened to Asia, in the hope of augmenting his wealth by war with the Parthians. He marched against them, crossed the Euphrates, and was near Carrhæ defeated with great loss by Surena, the Parthian commander. He surrendered, and was put to death, and his skull filled with molten gold as a reproach of his avarice. B. C. 53.

Julia, the wife of Pompeius, was also dead; the bonds which had kept the two most powerful and ambitious men of Rome from discord were now both removed. Pompeius could not endure a rival, Cæsar a superior. All prudent men saw that the sword must be the arbiter. The nobility all looked up to Pompeius as the chief support of the aristocracy. He was appointed consul without a colleague. He remained still at Rome; and the troops in his province were commanded by able and faithful officers. He sought to have the dictatorship renewed in his person. Cæsar and his friends required that he should be nominated consul in his absence, as more extraordinary transgressions of usage had been done in the case of Pompeius. Cæsar having now com-

pleted the conquest of Gaul, and thus established a frontier against the Germans, the people whom Italy had now most to dread, was meanwhile returning to Rome. All the towns of the province of Cisalpine Gaul vied in rendering honours and hospitality to the man who had achieved so many victories in Gaul. Pompeius sent to demand of Cæsar that he should give up two legions which he had lent him: they were given up. The senate then decreed that Cæsar should disband his legions, and seek the consulate like any other private man. The heads of the state and senate, from various motives, concurred in this decree. Cato, who never looked to expediency, but to right, supported it. Cicero in vain sought to mediate. Curio, a man of talent and eloquence, but profligate morals, and M. Antonius, one of the tribunes of the people, whose character resembled his, but who excelled him in military skill, were zealous partisans of Cæsar. All the other public officers were on the side of Pompeius, who maintained that the army was averse to Cæsar, and reckoned himself certain of the attachment of ten legions. Without waiting for the declaration of Cæsar, the senate, in an evil hour for them, issued their decree, that all the members of the executive should exert themselves for the defence of the republic, that troops should be raised, and Cn. Pompeius supported out of the public treasury. Meantime Cæsar's answer arrived, offering to disband his army, all but one legion, and to come and seek the consulate as a private citizen; but even his presence was dreaded in Rome. When the news reached Cæsar, he had but five cohorts with him; the rest of his troops were dispersed in numerous towns. He set out from Ravenna, and came to a little stream called the Rubicon, where Proper Italy was considered to end, and which no general could venture to pass without permission of the senate, under penalty of being declared a public enemy. It was a moment of importance, not to Cæsar only, but to the future world. Should he submit, or should he lead his army against Rome, against his country? On horseback, in the open air, Cæsar all night long pondered

this weighty question, with Asinius Pollio and his other friends, weighing the chances of ultimate success. At length he cried "The die is cast," gave his horse the spurs, and sprang across the stream, followed by his troops.

Civil War of Cæsar and Pompeius.

All the towns of Italy opened their gates to Cæsar as he approached them; the garrisons all joined his standard. Corfinium alone resisted; but its garrison also passed over to Cæsar, and Domitius, its governor, and his officers, entered the camp of the conqueror as captives, and experienced only clemency. On receiving intelligence of the approach of Cæsar, Pompeius, Cicero, Cato, the consuls, and the senate abandoned Rome in haste, and fled to Capua. Cæsar still advanced, making every day proposals of peace. When he drew near to Brundusium, Pompeius and his friends passed over to Greece: he marched to Rome, assembled the senate and people, and declared that he was driven by the conduct of his enemies to act as he was doing. Then knowing that the main strength of Pompeius lay in the army in Spain, commanded by Afranius and Petreius, he resolved to march against it without delay. He took money out of the treasury, and set out for Spain. Massilia opposed his passage, but soon was forced to open her gates. The obstacles presented by the rivers and mountains of Spain were surmounted by the genius of Cæsar. The Pompeian generals, notwithstanding their advantageous position, were forced to surrender themselves and their armies, without fighting a single battle. Having conquered the army, he hastened to engage the general, passed rapidly through Gaul and Italy, embarked at Brundusium, and landed his troops at Dyrrhachium.

Pompeius had summoned to his standard the troops of the kings of the East, whom he had formerly vanquished; Greece and Africa contributed to augment his forces; the majesty of the senate was in his camp; he himself called back the vigour, energy, and skill of his younger

days. But he was not allowed to follow the dictates of his wisdom and experience; his cause was regarded as that of the republic; and each unwarlike senator fancied he had a right to blame and reproach the inactivity of the general. The army of Cæsar was less numerous, but better composed; his plans were controlled by none; his soldiers placed implicit confidence in his talents and fortune.

The judicious plan adopted by Pompeius was to protract the war, to weary out and exhaust by delay his adversary. The taunts of his associates induced him to quit his fortified camp. Instead of returning to Italy, where the name of the republic might have operated powerfully in his favour, he descended into the plains of Thessaly. He drew up his forces near Pharsalus. The Cæsarians fell on with rapidity sword in hand. The cavalry on one of the wings of the Pompeians pursued a body of Cæsarian cavalry who had fled; they passed the three ordinary ranks of a Roman army, when, to their surprise, they encountered a fourth: without a moment's deliberation, they fled to the neighbouring heights. The opposite Cæsarian wing attacked that which was now denuded of its horse; the three ranks of the Cæsarian army fell into one; the Pompeians could not resist the shock; they gave way; Pompeius fled, and the day was irrecoverably lost. Cæsar, with his usual humanity, rode through the field, calling on his men to spare the Roman citizens. All the letters and papers he found in the tent of Pompeius he committed to the flames, without reading them. Next day the rest of the Pompeian army surrendered. Cato, not yet despairing of the fortune of the republic, passed over to Corcyra, and thence to Africa, to renew the conflict now, not for Pompeius, but for the laws and constitution.

Pompeius fled to the sea, and embarked for Lesbos, where his wife, Cornelia, was awaiting the event of the war. The maxims of philosophy which he had always cultivated were now his consolation. In doubt whether he had better look to the Parthians, to Juba, king of

Numidia, or to Ptolemy of Egypt for support, he preferred the last, whose father his power had restored to his throne. He sailed for Egypt: the ministers of the feeble young monarch dreaded his arrival; and by their treacherous contrivance, the great Roman was murdered in sight of his wife, and his naked body cast on the strand, where it was indebted for funeral honours to the gratitude and humanity of an old Roman soldier. Cæsar, who speedily arrived in Egypt, shed tears over the head of his rival which was presented to him. B. C. 48.

Events till the Death of Cæsar.

The charms of Cleopatra, the fair queen of Egypt, detained Cæsar in Alexandria. In a tumult, excited by his partiality for that princess against her brother, he narrowly escaped death by throwing himself into the sea, and swimming to a ship. A battle soon after took place; the Egyptians were worsted, and Ptolemy lost his life in the waters. Cæsar bestowed the entire kingdom upon Cleopatra, who had two children by him.

From Egypt Cæsar proceeded to Lesser Asia against Pharnaces king of Pontus, probably to give the Pompeians an opportunity of drawing together all their forces. *Veni, vidi, vici* was his account to the senate of the war against the Pontic prince. He soon made his appearance in Africa, and defeated all the armies opposed to him. Cato, no longer confiding in the republic, slew himself at Utica: his example was followed by Scipio, who had commanded the army. Juba and Petreius slew each other after supper. 46.

The other Pompeian commanders retired to Spain. At Munda the two sons of Pompeius gave battle to Cæsar, who never ran greater risk of seeing fortune desert him. Desperate effort gained him the victory, and one of the sons of Pompeius remained slain on the field. The Pompeian party was now completely crushed; all opposition to Cæsar was at an end. He returned to Rome, and triumphed over all the countries he had subdued. He was entitled father of his coun-

try, and made dictator for life. Mild and clement, he persecuted none; and Rome, beneath his sway, was enjoying tranquillity. As high pontiff he undertook and accomplished the reformation of the calendar, and formed the plan of a new legal code. Employment being necessary for the legions, war was meditated against the Parthians, to avenge the death of Crassus, or against the people on the coasts of the Black Sea.

In her present state of corruption the government of such a man as Cæsar was the greatest blessing that could befall Rome. The virtues requisite in a republic were no longer to be found in her; it was now her destiny to receive a master, and the world could not match the man into whose hands the power had fallen. But the old Roman sentiments still smouldered in some bosoms; the lessons and acts of Cato were still remembered with approbation; and a conspiracy was formed, in which some of the noblest and most virtuous men of Rome took part. Men who owed their lives to his clemency, their fortunes to his favour, impelled by a false idea of patriotism and public virtue, armed their hands against him; and on the ides of March, in the 708th year of
B. C. 44. Rome, Cæsar fell in the senate-house, pierced by three-and-twenty wounds.

Civil War with Brutus and Cassius.

The two principal of the conspirators were Brutus and Cassius. Of the purity of their motives, especially of those of the former, there can be little doubt: the wisdom of them is more questionable. They removed a mild despot; they brought back on their country the days of Marius and Sulla.

Cicero sought to establish concord by making the senate ratify all the acts of Cæsar, by bringing in an amnesty, and by sending the conspirators away to their respective provinces. But Marcus Antonius had, by a culpable lenity of the conspirators, been spared, and he now aimed at establishing his own power amidst the

general confusion. Against him Cicero and the senate found it necessary to set up the young Octavianus, the nephew and adopted son of Cæsar. Antonius began the war by attempting to drive Decimus Brutus, one of the conspirators, out of his province of Cisalpine Gaul. He besieged him in Mutina. The consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, marched to the relief of Brutus; Octavianus joined them, and Antonius was forced to fly into Transalpine Gaul. The two consuls fell before Mutina, not without suspicion of treachery on the part of Octavianus, whose dissimulation and want of moral principle early began to display themselves. But the senate dreamed, that they would find no difficulty in keeping him down, if by his means they could get rid of Antonius.

Lepidus and Plancus commanded armies in Gaul. Antonius gained them over to his side. He wrote to Octavianus, who, though appointed consul in the room of Pansa, was now every day on worse and worse terms with the senate, to show him that it would be more for his advantage to join him. A meeting was held between the two and Lepidus, in a little island formed by two streams, near the modern Bologna, and a second triumvirate, of a far more odious character than the former, was agreed on. Tables of proscription were drawn up, containing the names of 300 senators, 2000 knights, and many other distinguished citizens. All ties of friendship and kindred were postponed to the gratification of ambition and revenge. In the fatal list were L. Cæsar, the uncle of Antonius; Paulus, the brother of Lepidus, and Cicero, the friend and supporter of Octavianus. A man whose life and honour he had once defended was base and ungrateful enough to be the murderer of the great orator: his head was brought to Fulvia, the widow of Clodius and wife of Antonius; and with the mean revenge of a profligate woman, she pierced with her bodkin that tongue which had described in true and lively colours the vices and enormities of her husbands. B. C. 43.

The triumvirs resolved to destroy Cassius, who po-

verned Syria, and Brutus, who commanded in Macedonia. The united army of the latter amounted to nineteen legions. The armies engaged on the plain of
B. C. 42. Philippi, in Macedonia. Brutus was successful on his side, and took the camp of Octavianus. Cassius, who was opposed to Antonius, was not so fortunate. He thought, deceived by his short sight, that all was lost, and slew himself. A few days afterwards, Brutus, feeling that the fortune of the republic was gone, followed his example, and many other Romans of noble birth and lofty sentiments disdained to survive Brutus, Cassius, and the republic.

War between Octavianus and Antonius.

Sextus Pompeius alone remained to oppose the victors. His power was on the sea, and he long continued to give them uneasiness. Fulvia soon excited disturbance among the triumvirs themselves. Lepidus wavered which side to take; but Octavianus gained over his legions, and deprived him of his rank and power. The unfortunate citizens were the victims of these quarrels between their masters. Octavianus's forty-seven legions must have lands, and the paternal properties of numerous respectable families were confiscated to gratify their cupidity.

Antonius was in Asia. Pacorus the Parthian had invaded the Roman dominions there, but was repelled by Ventidius. Antonius would avenge the honour of Rome by reciprocal invasion. He was ignorant of the nature of the country he entered, and was forced to retire with loss. He went to Egypt, and in the arms of Cleopatra abandoned himself to the licentious indulgences he delighted in, and offended and insulted his wily colleague by divorcing his virtuous sister, Octavia. Both sides prepared for war. Octavianus, whose policy from the commencement had been to identify his own cause and that of the republic, and who, all his life long, affected to govern in the name of the senate, and under the ancient forms, gave out, that he took arms solely

to prevent the republic being subjected to an Egyptian. He proceeded to Greece with an army of 80,000 foot and 12,000 horse, and a fleet of 250 ships. His principal officer was M. Agrippa, a man of experience and ability. The engagement took place off the cape of Actium in Epirus. Cleopatra was there, and set the example of flight. She was followed by Antonius: the rout was total. Octavianus exercised clemency, and the greater part of the hostile army surrendered. He pursued the love-sick Antonius to Egypt, who, on a false report of the death of Cleopatra, threw himself on his sword; and the Egyptian queen, having in vain essayed her arts on the cold calculating Octavianus, sooner than be led in chains to adorn the triumph of the victor, and glut the eyes of the populace of Rome with the sight of the daughter and the last of the Ptolemies preceding the chariot of the adopted son of him who had done homage to her charms, gave herself voluntary death by the bite of an asp, or the prick of a poisoned needle. Egypt, in the 295th year from the death of Alexander the Great, became a Roman province.

In the same year, the 479th from the establishment of the republic, the 723rd from the building of the city, was Cæsar Octavianus, now styled Augustus, invested with all the power heretofore exercised by the consuls and tribunes of the people. He was a monarch, without appearing such. Every tenth year he affected to lay down and again receive his extraordinary powers from the senate and people. His sway was mild and beneficent; stately edifices rose to adorn the city; public spectacles and abundance of food satisfied the people; peace was enjoyed by all the empire. The memory of the republic was nearly obliterated; old men only retained a recollection of its worst period, and shuddered as they called to mind the horrors of the civil wars, and the blood-traced tables of proscription. The reign of Augustus was halcyon days after those storms; but, unhappily for Rome, this state was of no long and steady duration. The government was one of power, not of law; B. C. 29.

it was a despotism; and soon, beneath the tyranny and caprice of the emperors, even the turbulence of the latter days of the republic was looked back to with a sigh of regret.

CHAP. IX.

ROME AN EMPIRE.

Emperors of the Cæsarian Family.

Among the titles of Augustus was that of Imperator, whence emperor, a word derived from the ancient language of Italy*, and signifying general of an army. It was retained by his successors, as was also that of Cæsar, his family name.

The empire over which Augustus now ruled extended, in Europe, to the ocean, the Rhine, and the Danube; in Asia, to the Euphrates; in Africa, to Æthiopia and the sandy deserts. Its population was estimated at 120 millions. Satisfied with this extent of dominion, Augustus sought not himself to extend it, and advised his successors to be guided by his example. He therefore abstained from wars, except such on the frontiers as were deemed necessary to keep up the skill and discipline of the legions, and inspire the barbarians with a salutary dread of Rome. In these slight wars the imperial arms were usually successful: one memorable defeat alone is recorded: the legions of Varus were cut to pieces by the German leader, Herman, or Arminius. The prætorian guards, afterwards so fatal to the empire, were instituted by Augustus to protect his person, and to crush the first germs of rebellion. But he dispersed them through Italy, and they knew not then their own strength.

A. D. 10.

The temple of Janus, to close which in time of peace had been a ceremony in use from the origin of the state,

* *Embratur* is the term in the Samnite language.

was three times closed during the reign of this pacific prince. The arts and sciences which adorn peace were warmly patronised by him and his minister the accomplished Mecænas. The house of Augustus, for he dwelt not in a palace, was the resort of the poet and the scholar. The monarch himself was a writer, and he enjoyed the felicity, rare in his station, of possessing friends. By the people he was adored as a god.

Yet the happiness of Augustus was not without alloy. He could not, though he might seek to palliate by the plea of necessity, efface the recollection of the proscription-tables of his younger days, and the base surrender of his friend the virtuous Cicero. The defeat of Varus haunted his dreams by night. He had no male issue to succeed him; he had to mourn over the untimely death of the promising youth Marcellus and of the valiant Drusus; and the profligacy of his daughter Julia, and the insatiable ambition of his wife Livia, embittered his declining days. Augustus died at Nola in Campania, in A. D. the 76th year of his age, having governed Rome with 14. absolute sway during forty-four years.

In the year of Rome 752, while the world was enjoying peace under Augustus, and the "fulness of time" was come, it pleased the Almighty to send forth his Son Jesus Christ, as the announcer of a religion more pure and holy than any he had yet given to man. To relate the circumstances of the life and death of the Son of God (with which every reader must be supposed familiar) would be here superfluous. His religion, though persecuted, gradually spread over the Roman world. Unhappily, it is in its corrupted state that it becomes a prominent object in history.

Tiberius, the son of Livia, and step-son of Augustus, was appointed by him to succeed. This prince was 14. now in his 55th year. All the bad qualities of his predecessor were united in him; his good ones were absent. A dark and crooked policy characterised all his acts: the establishment of perfect despotism, the abolition of all remnants of liberty, was his object. Restrained at

first by fear of the noble Germanicus, when that check
A.D. was removed by death, not without suspicion of poison,
19. he gave a loose to all his cruel and sensual propensities. In his later years, he retired to the island of Capreæ in the bay of Naples, where he wallowed in every species of beastly and sensual gratification. His cruelties at Rome were meantime directed by his minister Sejanus, until, grown suspected by his master, he was by his order put to death. Tiberius dying left the world to a monster still more ferocious than himself.

37. Caius Caligula, the son of Germanicus, and grandnephew of Tiberius, displayed tyranny in its most appalling form. His reign commenced with mildness; but at the end of the first year, after a violent fit of illness, which, perhaps, disordered his intellect, a cruelty, the most absurd and capricious that can be conceived, commenced. While he meditated raising his horse to the consulship, and fed him out of gold, he slaughtered the noblest men of Rome without mercy, drove men in herds before the judgment-seat to receive sentence of death, and hunted the spectators of a public show into the waters of the Tiber. Four years the empire groaned beneath the cruelty of this frantic savage. At length the dagger of Chæreas delivered the world of him.

On the death of Caius, the senate, detesting the tyranny
41. of the Cæsars, deliberated on restoring the republic, and abolishing the imperial power. But ere two days had elapsed, they had to learn, to their mortification, that there was now in existence a power greater than theirs or that of the emperors. Tiberius had collected the prætorian guards, a body of 10,000 men, from the quarters in which the policy of Augustus had kept them dispersed; and, under pretext of relieving Italy and improving their discipline, had fixed them in a strongly-fortified camp on the Viminal and Quirinal hills. The guards now first exhibited their power: they proclaimed Claudius, the weak-minded uncle of Caius, emperor, and the senate received with submission their feeble ruler. Not naturally bloody, yet the instrument of women and freedmen, the annals of his reign exhibit

thirty-five senators and three hundred knights falling by the hand of the executioner during the thirteen years that he filled the throne. Claudius was poisoned, to make room for his successor. A. D.

Domitius Nero was the son of Agrippina, and pupil of Seneca. The first five years of his reign were mild and just. But his furious passions soon grew impatient of restraint. He put to death his mother, his brother, his tutor; set fire to the city, charged the Christians with the crime, and began the persecution of that sect. He prostituted the dignity of his station, and the majesty of Rome, by appearing as a singer on the public stage. The patience of mankind could no longer endure this combination of cruelty, insult, debauchery, and meanness: several conspiracies were formed against him, but without success; the tyrant discovering them in time. At length Galba was declared emperor, and Nero by the senate pronounced a public enemy, and sentenced to death *more majorum*, which sentence he avoided by a voluntary death. Yet, vile as he was, there were those who loved his memory, and raised monuments to the monster who had perpetrated so many crimes. It is not undeserving of notice, that within a century after the death of Cato, the senate, which once gave laws to the world, was convoked on the solemn occasions of the marriage of Nero with two of his own sex. So utterly can the greatest institutions be degraded! 54.

Emperors chosen by the Army.

Galba, a man of honourable birth and advanced age, was raised to the throne by the army which he commanded in Spain. The senate confirmed the choice of the army; but he sought to restrain the prætorians, and he atoned for his boldness with his life. 68.

Otho, the partaker of the guilty pleasures of Nero, was placed on the throne by the party which murdered Galba. The army of the Rhine had meantime proclaimed their general Vitellius. Otho, though a volup- 69

tuary, still retained some noble feelings; and when in the battle at Bedriacum victory had declared for the generals of Vitellius, Otho, to spare the blood of citizens, put a voluntary termination to his own life.

A. D. 70. Vitellius, devoted to the pleasures of the table, viewed the imperial power only as affording the means of unbounded indulgence. But he was soon roused from his dream of luxury, by tidings of the Syrian army having proclaimed their general Flavius Vespasianus worthiest of the throne. Vitellius terminated his brief reign by a cruel death.

During this period the tranquillity of the empire was disturbed in every quarter. The Jews, oppressed by their governors, torn by parties, deceived by a false interpretation, but flattering to their national vanity, of their ancient prophecies, broke out into rebellion, which, persisted in with obstinacy and judicial blindness, cost their nation the remnant of their independence, the lives of three hundred thousand men, their noble city, and the magnificent temple of Jehovah, the point of union and pride of Israel. Rome, too, witnessed, at this period, a second conflagration of the splendid temple of Jupiter Optimus Maximus, which crowned the Capitol. It seemed as if the wrath of Heaven was now poured out on guilty man and his works. At Rome were to be seen each day the excesses of the soldiery, the clash of arms, and false charges brought before judicial tribunals; war menaced or devastated the provinces; Civilis raised Gaul in rebellion; the Germans passed the Rhine; the Parthian cavalry hovered ready to descend on Syria.

The Flavian Family.

70. Vespasian was at the head of the army acting against the rebellious Jews, when he was proclaimed emperor. He repaired to Rome, leaving his son, the mild and virtuous Titus, to carry on the war. Though raised to the throne by the army, he would receive his power from the senate, who bestowed on him all the offices, rights, and powers held by Augustus, Tiberius, and Claudius, in as full

and unlimited a manner as they had possessed them; and by his conduct during the nine years he reigned, he showed himself deserving of the absolute power he possessed.

The empire now enjoyed peace. Titus had ended the Jewish war. The Parthians, seeing no internal discord, abstained from hostilities. Judicial persecution ceased at Rome. The emperor and his son lived on terms of intimacy with the best and wisest men. The senate regained its consideration. The finances were put into a proper condition; military discipline restored; cities built, and roads constructed. An excessive frugality, hardly, in such times, to be regarded as a fault, was the blemish most observed in the character of Vespasian. His death would have been an irreparable loss to Rome, had he not left such a successor as Titus.

A. D.
Titus, *the Delight of Mankind*, amiable, just, generous, 79.
and brave, reigned but for two short years, and in that space this virtuous prince had to witness many calamities. His heart was torn with anguish at being obliged to part with the Jewish princess Berenice, whom he loved so tenderly; Vesuvius raged with unwonted fury, and buried beneath its ashes the towns of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiæ, and wasted a large portion of Campania; a conflagration broke out in Rome, and destroyed a great part of the city, and this was followed by a destructive pestilence.

Domitian, the brother of Titus, succeeded. The 81.
happiness of the empire seemed to have expired with his father and brother, and Nero to have returned to life. Yet Domitian dreaded to venture on the excesses of this last-named tyrant, and fear set some bounds to his cruelty. He exhausted the treasury, while he embellished the city with magnificent buildings, and engaged in expensive and inglorious wars. His reign was, however, distinguished by the real conquest of Britain by the gallant Agricola, whose death the jealous emperor, if he did not occasion, did not regret. After a tyranny of fifteen years, his life and reign were terminated by a conspiracy, in which his own wife shared.

The good Emperors.

A. D. 96. The senate was assembled on the death of the tyrant, and the purple was offered to Nerva, one of their body, a just and virtuous man, but far advanced in life. To give security to his authority, and assure a virtuous successor to the empire, he adopted the valiant and upright Trajan, who then commanded a large army in Lower Germany. The aged emperor, at the same time, declared him his colleague for life in the empire. Nerva, during his short reign, reduced the taxes, and made a distribution of lands among the poor.

98. Trajan was forty years of age when adopted by Nerva: of his virtue a decisive evidence was exhibited, for more than 250 years after his death, in the acclamation of the senate to each new emperor, wishing him to be more fortunate than Augustus, more virtuous than Trajan. The military and pacific virtues were united in this accomplished prince. Just and upright, he listened to the meanest suitor; affable, he was accessible to the lowest citizen. During a reign of nineteen years but one senator suffered death, and he was condemned by his own order. He lightened the burdens of the provinces, declaring that the hearts of loving subjects should be his treasures. He selected his ministers and friends from among the virtuous and the good: he perfected the code of laws, adorned Rome with stately buildings, and founded a magnificent library. In war he extended the bounds of the empire beyond the limits set to it by Augustus; conquered the fruitful plains and hills of Dacia; curbed the wild hordes of Caucasus; bowed to submission the emirs of the Arabian deserts; avenged the fate of Crassus, and took Ctesiphon, the Parthian capital. The ships of Trajan navigated the Persian gulf. He died at Selinus, in Cilicia; whence his body was brought to Rome, where it was received by the whole senate and people, and buried in the forum, which bore his name, beneath the lofty pillar which rises to the height of 110 feet, adorned with his deeds.

Hadrian, it is thought, had been adopted by Trajan. A. D.
He was also an able and active prince, though not the 117.
equal of his great predecessor. Hadrian wisely gave up
several of the conquests of Trajan, and reduced the em-
pire to its old bounds of the Rhine, the Danube, and the
Euphrates, and raised in Britain a barrier against the 121.
incursions of the untamed Caledonians. During his
reign a formidable insurrection of the Jews, under an
impostor, named Barchochebas, broke out, which was
extinguished in the blood of thousands of that obstinate
and misguided people. This emperor made a progress
through his dominions, redressing grievances and dimi-
nishing taxes; and he regulated his court in the most
exact manner. He was devoted to the fine arts, though
his taste was none of the purest. As age came on, he
grew peevish and cruel; but the effects of these ill qua-
lities were mitigated by the mildness and gentleness of
Antoninus, whom he had adopted on the death of his
favourite Lucius Verus.

Antoninus, surnamed the Pious, from his affection for 138.
his adoptive father, was one of those rare combinations
of perfect virtue which the visions of philosophy, rather
than real life, present as seated on a throne. His reign
flowed on, for a space of twenty-three years, in digni-
fied tranquillity: wars interrupted not the repose of the
empire: neighbouring nations submitted their differ-
ences to the arbitration of the virtuous Antoninus.
He closed his beneficent career by leaving the guidance
of the empire to an accomplished philosopher.

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus would willingly have 161
trodden the tranquil course of his predecessor; but
the restless enemies of the empire summoned the phi-
losophic monarch to the defence of the frontiers, and to
give a proof that the study of philosophy does not dis-
qualify for action. Nations of Germanic race united,
as in the days of Marius, to pour in upon Italy; but
Aurelius showed them, that the legions of Rome still
retained their discipline and valour. The Parthians
broke into Syria: the emperor speedily drove them

back within their own limits. Foreign war was not the only calamity that afflicted the empire in this reign; famine and its constant attendant pestilence, ravaged various provinces. The Germans, though beaten, still renewed their attempts, and the emperor died during his eighth winter campaign against the Marcomanni. Aurelius was, like Augustus, unhappy in his family: his wife Faustina disgraced him by her licentiousness; and the disposition of his son Commodus afforded slender grounds for pleasing hope.

From Commodus to Diocletian.

A. D. 180. The most vicious succeeded the most virtuous of mankind. Commodus, the son of Aurelius, was a profligate, foolish boy. His delight was in the indulgence of low sordid propensities; he sought for glory in gladiatorial skill; while he degraded the majesty of the empire, by setting the example of purchasing peace from the barbarians. The father had made the Marcomanni feel the edge of the Roman steel; the degenerate son bestowed upon them Roman gold. Oppressive taxation once more galled the subjects; the blood of the virtuous was once more seen to flow; the favour of his father availed not to save; Salvius Julianus, the great lawyer, whom Aurelius had honoured, died by the order of Commodus. The emperor had nothing to fear from the Prætorians, whom he indulged in all their excesses. These were his protectors against all others, and he might mock at all plots of the senate or people; but he carried his tyranny, whither it was rarely carried with impunity, into his own household, and a conspiracy delivered the Roman world of the wretch who oppressed it.

Murder thus, after a long interval, again made its appearance in the palace of the Cæsars, and now seemed 192. to have made it its permanent abode. Helvius Pertinax, the prefect of the city, a man of virtue, was placed on the throne by the conspirators, who would fain justify their deed in the eyes of the world, and their choice was

confirmed by the senate. But the Prætorians had not forgotten their own power on a similar occasion; and they liked not the virtue and regularity of the new monarch. Pertinax was, therefore, speedily deprived of throne and life.

Prætorian insolence now attained its height. Regardless of the dignity and honour of the empire, they set it up to auction. The highest bidder was a senator, named Didius Julianus, a nephew of that very Salvius who had suffered for law and virtue in the reign of Commodus. The legions disdained to receive an emperor from the life-guards. Those of Britain proclaimed their general Clodius Albinus; those of Asia, Pescennius Niger; the Pannonian legions, Septimius Severus. This last was a man of bravery and conduct: by valour and stratagem he successively vanquished his rivals. He maintained the superiority of the Roman arms against the Parthians and Caledonians. His reign was vigorous and advantageous to the state; but he wanted either the courage or the power to fully repress the licence and insubordination of the soldiery. A. D. 193. 194.

Severus left the empire to his two sons. Caracalla, the elder, a prince of violent and untamable passions, disdained to share empire with any. He murdered his brother and colleague, the more gentle Geta, and put to death all who ventured to disapprove of the deed. A restless ferocity distinguished the character of Caracalla: he was ever at war, now on the banks of the Rhine, now on those of the Euphrates. His martial impetuosity daunted his enemies; his reckless cruelty terrified his subjects. But the army loved the prince, who set no value on any but a soldier. Alexander the Great was the model this profligate fratricide dared to set before him. No greater insult could be offered to the memory of the Macedonian. During a Parthian war, Caracalla gave offence to Macrinus, the commander of his body-guard, who murdered him. 211.

Macrinus seized the empire, but had not power to hold it. He and his son Diadumenianus, an amiable youth 218.

of but eighteen years, were put to death by the army, who
A. D. proclaimed a supposed son of their beloved Caracalla.
218. This youth was named Elagabalus, and was priest of the Sun in the temple of Emesa, in Syria. Every vice stained the character of this licentious, effeminate youth, whose name is become proverbial for sensual indulgence: he possessed no redeeming quality, had no friend, and was put to death by his own guards, who, vicious as they were themselves, detested vice in him.

222. Alexander Severus, cousin to Elagabalus, but of a totally opposite character, succeeded that vicious prince. All estimable qualities were united in the noble and accomplished Alexander. He delighted in the society of the learned and the wise; the statues of the sages of all countries adorned his library; and their works, destined for the improvement of mankind, formed his constant study. But the love of learning and virtue did not in him smother military skill and valour; he checked the martial hordes of Germany, and led the Roman eagles to victory against the Sassanides, who had displaced the Arsacides in the dominion over Persia*, and revived the claims of the house of Cyrus over Anterior Asia. Alexander, victorious in war, beloved by his subjects, deemed he might venture on introducing more regular discipline into the army. The attempt was fatal, and the amiable monarch lost his life in the mutiny that resulted.

235. Maximin, a soldier, originally a Thracian shepherd, distinguished by his prodigious size, strength, and appetite, a stranger to all civic virtues and all civic rules, rude, brutal, cruel, and ferocious, seated himself on the throne of the noble and virtuous prince, in whose murder he had been a chief agent. At Rome the senate conferred the vacant dignity on Gordian, a noble, wealthy, and virtuous senator, and on his son, of the same name, a valiant and spirited youth. But scarcely were they recognised, when the son fell in an engagement, and the father slew himself. Maximin was now rapidly marching towards Rome, full of rage and fury. Despair gave courage to

* See p. 60.

the senate; they nominated Balbinus and Pupienus, one to direct the internal, the other the external affairs. Maximin had advanced as far as Aquileia, when his horrible cruelties caused an insurrection against him, and he and his son, an amiable youth, were murdered. The army was not, however, willing to acquiesce in the claim of the senate to appoint an emperor. Civil war was on the point of breaking out, when the conflicting parties agreed in the person of the third Gordian, a boy of but thirteen years of age. A. D.

Gordian III. was an amiable and virtuous youth. 238.
In affairs of state he was chiefly guided by his father-in-law, Misitheus, who induced him to engage in war against the Persians. In the war Gordian displayed a courage worthy of any of his predecessors; but he shared what was now become the usual fate of a Roman emperor. He was murdered by Philip, the captain of his guard.

Philip, an Arabian by birth, originally a captain of 244.
freebooters, seized on the purple of his murdered sovereign. Two rivals arose and contended with him for the prize, but accomplished nothing. A third competitor, Decius, the commander of the army of the Danube, defeated and slew him near Verona. During the reign of Philip, Rome attained her thousandth year; and the games to commemorate the duration of the city of Romulus, Brutus, and Cæsar, were celebrated by the native of a country scarcely known, even by name, to the kings and consuls!

Decius, a prince of rigid virtue and primitive sim- 249.
plicity of manners, sought to restore its ancient tone to the Roman character; but the time for reformation was long gone by; a new character was now completely and fixedly formed. The well-meant projects of the emperor failed, and himself fell in battle, in defence of his country against the invading Goths.

In the space of two years reigned and fell four em- 251-
perors, Gallus, Volusian, Hostilian, son of Decius, and 253.

Æmilian. The Germans still pressed on Italy, the Persians on Syria.

A. D. 253. Valerian succeeded. His rigour and virtue as a censor had been applauded; as an emperor, he showed feebleness and incapacity. He associated his son Gallienus in the empire with him. In the war against Shahpoor of Persia he was defeated and taken prisoner. The haughty Persian subjected the captive emperor to every indignity. The Roman spirit was gone; he submitted with patience, and his luxurious colleague revelled heedless of his father's sufferings.

260. Gallienus, devoted to sensual indulgence, lived tranquilly in Italy. But in the various provinces, Britain, Gaul, Spain, Syria, Africa, &c., and even in Italy, numerous claimants of the imperial dignity arose. Some of these were men of merit, almost all persons of military skill and valour. Though the empire was thus torn and confused, its constant enemies, the Germans and Persians, were unable to seize any part. This is usually denominated *The time of the thirty tyrants*, though (as far as we can collect from coins) they did not exceed twenty-one, and are unjustly designated as tyrants. But some fancied analogy to Critias and his colleagues at Athens presented itself, and mankind love analogies and round numbers. None of these rivals gave much uneasiness to Gallienus, who would have been well content with Italy alone, till Aureolus threatened to deprive him even of that. He then marched to battle against him at Milan; but ere he took the city, he was murdered, naming, with his last breath, the most worthy to be his successor.

268. Claudius was the most worthy. He delivered Italy from the Goths, by a victory such as Rome had not seen since the days of Marius. But his reign was of short duration, and would have been more deeply lamented were it not for the virtues and talents of his successor.

270. Aurelian, a man bred in camps, brought to the throne the valour, activity, and vigour that it required. He introduced order into the state, and restored the

empire to internal tranquillity. He defeated the Germans, and even pursued them into their forests, vanquished all his rivals, and among them Zenobia, or Zeinab, the heroic queen of Palmyra, who, in chains of gold, adorned the triumph in which the emperor entered Rome. Aurelian never lost a battle: he was clement to the conquered, indulgent to the people and the army, but averse to the senate. He was murdered on his way against the Persians.

The army was now either satisfied with the long exercise of its power in appointing emperors, or it saw the evils likely to arise to the empire in general from each army investing its leader with the purple. Accordingly, on the death of Aurelian, they restored its privilege to the senate, who, after an inter-reign of eight months, bestowed the purple on Tacitus, a man of virtue and probity. Tacitus was far advanced in years when he was placed on the throne, which he occupied for a few months with honour, and then died a natural death. A. D. 275.

After the death of Tacitus, his brother Florianus, who little resembled him, aspired to the empire. Neither senate nor army approved of him, and the latter bestowed the purple on their virtuous and able commander, Probus, who, to the more rigorous virtues of Aurelian, united a gentleness and moderation, to which that able prince had been a stranger. The senate approved of the choice of the army. Probus defeated the Germans on the Danube and the Rhine. He introduced into their country the culture of the vine, and employed the legions in the labours of the field and the vineyard. This, united with the strict discipline he sought to revive, excited their indignation: they rose in mutiny, murdered, and then lamented their excellent emperor. 276.

Carus, the commander of the body-guard, was raised to the empire, in which he associated with himself his two sons, Carinus and Numerian, the former of a dissolute, the latter of a more gentle and cultured disposition. Carus was esteemed a good general, but his reign was short; he was killed by lightning in his tent, or 282.

possibly murdered by those who spread that report. His son Numerian was shortly afterwards murdered by his father-in-law Aper, the prætorian prefect. The traitor expiated his crime by death. Carinus was slain by a man whose conjugal honour he had insulted.

Change in the Form of Government.

A. D. 284. After the death of Carus and his sons, the reins of empire fell into the firm hands of Diocletian, by birth a Dalmatian, a wise and able prince. The enemies of the empire pressed now with redoubled force on the frontiers, and Diocletian saw that the vigilance and activity of one mind could not suffice to attend to the multifarious concerns of the state. The events of the last reigns had also taught him the danger of committing the command of the legions to officers who might so readily become competitors for the throne. He therefore resolved to share the imperial dignity with his friend and comrade in arms, Maximianus Herculius, to whom, as being of a rugged active character, he committed the West, while himself took charge of the East. Each bore the title of Augustus, and each appointed a successor under that of Cæsar. The Cæsars were younger and more active men, and the more exposed parts of the empire were committed to them. Diocletian administered Asia; his Cæsar, Galerius, rough and soldierly, governed Thrace and the countries on the Danube. Maximian retained Italy, Spain, Africa, and the islands; his Cæsar, Constantius Chlorus, a worthy descendant of the late emperor Claudius, governed Gaul and Britain. Rome ceased to be an imperial residence: that of Maximian was mostly at Milan; Diocletian resided chiefly at Nicomedia. A farther innovation made by this emperor was the introduction of the oriental splendour of attire and adoration of the emperors. He and his colleague with great solemnity assumed, on the same day, the diadem and other insignia of eastern royalty.

Perhaps nothing better could have been devised for maintaining the empire than this partition of power. The experienced monarchs could give attention to internal affairs, while the younger and more active emperors elect, away from the corruption of capitals, might keep up the discipline and military virtues of the legions. Accordingly we find that the Goths were held in check, the Allemanni defeated, Britain, where Carausius had in the late reign raised a rebellion, reduced to obedience, and the Persians forced to a peace advantageous and honourable to the empire. But it was not to be expected that four princes could reign together in unanimity, or that Cæsars would patiently wait till death made way for them to the higher rank. It was not long, therefore, before contention and war broke out among them.

While Diocletian ruled, he kept his colleagues in bounds, exerting over them the influence of a superior mind. But after a reign of twenty years, feeling the infirmities of age approach, he resolved to abandon the cares of empire, and retire to pass the evening of his life in seclusion in his native province. He signified his intention to Maximian, who reluctantly assented to a joint abdication. The Cæsars were raised to the rank of Augusti: Constantius was assigned Severus for his Cæsar; Galerius conferred that dignity on his nephew Daza.

A. D. 306. Constantius did not long enjoy the dignity he adorned. Galerius soon became odious to the Romans; and Maximian took advantage of this circumstance to make his son Maxentius master of Italy. Severus was forced to yield. In the mean time, Constantine, the son of Constantius, had completely won the hearts of the British and Gallic legions, by his military and civil virtues, and he soon forced Galerius and Maxentius to acknowledge him as joint-emperor.

The debauchery and cruelty of Maxentius were now grown intolerable to the Romans. The nobles fled from the city; the labours of agriculture were neglected; his own father was forced to fly from him and take refuge with Constantine, who had married his daughter. But

the restless and depraved old man could not abstain from machinations against his son-in-law and protector; and Constantine, not to be himself the victim, compelled him to end his unquiet life by voluntary death, the mode
A. D. of which was left to his own choice. Invited by the
312. Roman nobles, Constantine marched against Maxentius. A battle took place in the neighbourhood of Rome: Maxentius fell, and the whole West obeyed Constantine.

Galerius was now dead, and his nephew, Maximianus Daza, whom he had raised to the rank of a Cæsar, had followed him. Constantine associated with himself Licinius, a man who by military merit had risen to the dignity of a Cæsar. They named their sons, Crispus and Licinius, to be their Cæsars. The old emperor Diocletian died, as was said by his own hand, about this time.

Constantine now openly professed himself a Christian. He put an end to the persecution which had raged against that sect for the last ten years with all the violence of
313. the expiring storm. His conversion, perhaps, was sincere: possibly he saw that the Christians were become the most powerful body in the empire, and that the wisest policy was to give way to what could not be resisted without imminent danger. He issued two edicts; one assigning them the temples of the gods, in places where they had not suitable churches; the other, giving them the preference in all appointments to civil and military offices; and thus, in less than three centuries from its origin, Christianity became, in effect, the established religion of the empire. Constantine, however, deferred his baptism till a little before his death.

Unanimity did not long subsist between the emperors. Wars broke out, and Licinius was eventually deprived of his dignity and life by his victorious colleague, who now
324. reigned alone. Seeing that the North-east, where the powerful nation of the Goths was settled, was the quarter from which most danger was to be apprehended, and also the growing strength of Persia, Constantine deemed Rome too remote a residence for the sovereign, and he

A. D.
fixed on Byzantium, which he enlarged and named from 330.
himself, as the seat of imperial power. This measure has been blamed, as leaving Italy exposed to the irruptions of the barbarians; but continuance at Rome, or any other plan to ward off the inevitable evil, would have been equally exposed to censure. The virtue and energy which had gained the empire were gone; the tribes of the North had added skill and discipline to their numbers, strength, and courage

Corruption of Christianity.

The Christian religion, as given to man by its divine Author, was perfect in truth and simplicity; but it was sent forth into a world in which error abounded, and the stream had hardly left the fountain when it became defiled with mundane impurities. Earnestly and repeatedly does the zealous Paul inveigh against those who mingled what he called the "beggarly elements" and the "fables" of Judaism with the spiritual precepts of the Gospel; and strongly does he warn to avoid "profane and vain babblings, and oppositions of *knowledge*, falsely so called." But the evil was not to be checked, and Oriental and Grecian philosophy rapidly mingled with Gospel simplicity.

The heat of eastern climates inspires indolence and the love of contemplation. The human mind becomes absorbed in rapturous visions of light and expanse, and men learn to regard the soul, the commencement of whose existence they cannot conceive, as having descended from the realms of supernal light into the body, its present darksome dungeon, whence it was to reascend to its former blissful abode. Hence the body being a prison, and matter evil, the object of the soul was to emancipate itself from their influence. This was to be best effected, it was thought, by mortification of the flesh and senses; and hence the voluntary mutilations, the corporeal tortures, rigid abstinence, and all that system of self-torment which distinguishes the yogee, the

fakeer, and the monk. Others, but fewer in number, drew a contrary conclusion, and maintained that the acts of its impure companion were indifferent to the pure soul; and they freely indulged in the practice of the grossest sensuality.

This eastern doctrine, mixed with the Persian one of the two principles, entered, under the name of Gnosis, or *knowledge*, into Christianity, even in the days of the apostles; and it was, perhaps, already not unknown to the Essenes. All the heresies of which we read in the early days of the church were founded, more or less, on the Gnosis; and one of the favourite doctrines of these sects was, that this world and its creator were evil, and that Jesus was a being produced by wisdom, who took the appearance of a body, in which he was apparently crucified by the agents of the creator of the world.

With this *knowledge* of the East the *philosophy* of the West combined to debase the truth of the Gospel. This philosophy was the New Platonism, which had fixed its chief seat at Alexandria, in Egypt, a country ever fertile of error and corruption. Its followers undertook the defence of the old religion; they allegorised all its indecent and extravagant legends, and set it in opposition to the new faith. Some of these philosophers became Christians, and retained their love of mystery and word-straining artifices: some Christians were educated in their schools. The Jews of Egypt had, as the works of Philo show, long since been familiar with the allegorising system, which was now unsparingly applied to the simple precepts and narrations of the Old Testament: and the sober Christian of the present day would stare with amazement at the numerous and marvellous senses they were made to bear in the writings of the learned Origen. By this system any words could be made to bear any sense; and what a field for corruption this gave, is too evident to need proof. Yet, as evil has always its attendant good, this very corruption of Christianity may have aided its diffusion, by procuring it a more ready acceptance among the educated classes of

society, whose taste had long lost all relish for truth and simplicity.

A veneration for departed excellence is one of the most natural and praiseworthy principles of our nature; hence no one can blame the early Christians for visiting with respect the tombs of those who died beneath heathen tortures rather than renounce their faith. But, gradually, simple respect was converted into religious adoration; the bodies and reliques of the martyrs and confessors were taken from their peaceful and obscure places of rest, and solemnly enshrined in stately churches, where, by the devout, they were viewed with awful veneration, and to whose sanctity they were held largely to contribute.

If such honours were paid to the mortal remains of the champions for Christ, of how much greater were they themselves to be held worthy! It soon became an established article of faith, that the apostles and other eminent saints were at once admitted to the beatific vision and immediate presence of God, where they enjoyed an extent of knowledge and a measure of power to which limits could not easily be set. The transition was easy to an invocation of them, to exert their own power for their suppliant, or intercede with God in his favour; and the *worship of saints* was speedily disseminated through the Christian world. The bodies which the saints had occupied when on earth were supposed to retain or to have acquired a portion of this power: *they too were adored;* and, shortly after, this honour was extended to their images. Each saint was held to be most easily propitiated at the place where his reliques lay, or his life had been spent, and hence the origin of *pilgrimages.*

In effect, the theory devised by Euhemerus, to account for the origin of Grecian polytheism, was exactly applicable to a great part of the religion now called Christianity; and we shall have completed the picture when we add the number of pretended miracles that were every day asserted with the most unblushing assurance,

and the quantity of Jewish and heathen ceremonies that was rapidly introduced into the church, which still rose in error, till, amidst the gloom of the dark ages, in *transubstantiation* the cope-stone was laid on the anti-Christian edifice.

This is the religion which will appear in the next twelve centuries of our history, and to which our future remarks will apply. We must, however, in justice add, that the torrent of corruption was nobly stemmed by some, such as Vigilantius; that many of the corruptors knew not what they did; and that much of the gold still remained among the dross.

CHAP. X.

DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.

Successors of Constantine.

A. D.
337. CONSTANTINE II. obtained Gaul and Britain: Constans Italy, Illyria, and Africa; Constantius had the East. Their cousins, Dalmatius and Hannibalianus, had been made Cæsars by their uncle: the former governed Thrace, Macedonia, and Greece; the latter, Armenia.

The Cæsars were murdered by their soldiers, not without the approbation of the emperors, each of whom thirsted for absolute sway. Constantine attempted to deprive his brother of Italy, and lost his life in a battle
340. against him near Aquileia. Constans, a prince not devoid of talent, was devoted to and passed his days in the practice of unnatural lusts. Magnentius conspired against him, and he was surprised and slain in a wood
350. at the foot of the Pyrenees, whither he was in the habit of retiring with his favourites. Magnentius attempted to seize his dominions; but Illyria refused obedience, and made Vetranio, an old and worthy officer, emperor.

Constantius, committing the war which he was waging, with little success, against Shahpoor, king of Persia, to his cousin Gallus, whom he had made Cæsar, marched to the West. Vetranio cheerfully resigned his dignity for an annual pension. Italy declared for Constantius; and Rome suffered a cruel vengeance from Magnentius, ere he marched to meet his rival. A series of bloody engagements ensued. On the plains of Hungary the last decisive one was fought, which re-united the empire under a single sceptre. Magnentius, to save them from disgrace, slew his own mother, and one of his brothers, and then himself; and his example was followed by his brother Decentius. The Cæsar Gallus was executed shortly afterwards for some offences, by order of the emperor. A. D. 354.

Julian, the brother of Gallus, had been reared up at the court of Constantius. His habits were studious, his sentiments virtuous. Disgusted with what he saw around him, he sought relief in the contemplation of the noble characters of Greek and Roman story, whom he made his models. He carried his veneration for his loved antiquity so far as to renounce the Christian religion in which he had been reared, and secretly to embrace the ancient system of Greece and Rome, refined by the allegorising subtilty of the school of the New Platonists; and resolved to restore it to its former dignity if ever the empire should fall to him.

The Franks and Allemanni were now causing extreme uneasiness to Gaul, and the emperor was obliged to send thither, with the rank of Cæsar, his nephew, whom he held cheap as a book-learned dreamer. But Julian showed, as other men of mental power often have done, that study and learning disqualify not for action. He arranged the most judicious plan for conducting the war, and gave the Allemanni, whose troops under their chief Chnodomar were three times the number of his army, a most decisive defeat in the neighbourhood of Strasburg. He marched all through their territory, reduced them and the Franks to sue for

peace, and restored the frontiers of the empire. He diminished the burdens of Gaul, and caused justice to be administered with speed and impartiality. His army saluted him Augustus; and Constantius, on receiving the intelligence in Cilicia, died, it is said, of grief and mortification.

A. D. 361. Julian, when seated on the throne, openly professed the ancient religion of the empire. The temples of the gods were again opened, the priests restored to their ancient dignity, and the zealous emperor sought to purify their morals. All practices and institutions to which Christianity appeared to him to have owed its success were engrafted on the old religion: preachers were placed in the temples; excommunication employed against obstinate sinners; large sums distributed in alms among the poor. An example of strict and rigid morals was set by the emperor; the utmost moderation prevailed in the palace; the eunuchs and other ministers of luxury were removed. Favour in the distribution of employments was naturally shown to those who agreed in sentiment with the monarch; but Julian, though superstitious, was too politic, if not too humane, to persecute the Christians. Toleration prevailed; bishops who had been deposed from their sees were restored; the cessation of mutual persecution for opinion enjoined; Arians and Athanasians—for the dispute respecting the divine nature of Jesus Christ had split the church into these parties—compelled to live in peace. The politic emperor hoped, perhaps, by division to weaken his opponents.

From these cares Julian was called away to the defence of the eastern frontier against Shahpoor, who, probably aware of the growing disaffection of the Christians, had begun to make inroads. Julian marched to Mesopotamia, where, deceived by a pretended deserter, who undertook to lead him by a nearer road, he got into the deserts, where his army was exposed to the attacks of the light cavalry of the enemy. He resolved on giving battle; but just as he was preparing for action,

he was mortally wounded, and he died, encouraging his officers to do their duty.

A. D.

On the death of Julian, the army invested with the purple Jovian, a Pannonian, a man of talent, and so zealous a Christian, that he had thereby incurred the displeasure of the late emperor. He was compelled to surrender the strong fortress of Nisibis to Shahpoor, as the condition of peace. Before he reached Constantinople he died. 363.

The army chose another Pannonian, Valentinian, to succeed; and he, with their assent, shared the dignity with his brother Valens, to whom he committed the care of the eastern part of the empire, himself taking charge of the West. Valentinian was a valiant prince; and he distinguished himself in war against the Saxons, Allemanni, and Sarmatians, and built fortresses along the Rhine. Want of self-command was his great defect. Valens was of a less noble character, and he exercised great cruelty against those who set up claims to his empire, or differed from his theological sentiments. 364.

The internal corruption and weakness of the empire still increased; the court more and more every day approximated to the idle pomp, the secret influence of women and eunuchs, the inaccessibleness of the monarch, the horrid cruelty which distinguished those of the East. Barbarous punishments, such as Rome had hardly seen under the worst of her heathen monarchs, were inflicted by these emperors. The discipline of the legions continually relaxed; their armour was lightened; the infantry diminished, and cavalry increased. The garrisons of frontier towns took to civil occupations. The best of the legions were composed of barbarians, who had been taken into the imperial pay. These often refused to fight against their own countrymen; often betrayed the Romans; mocked at all discipline; robbed and plundered the country; forced their emperors to give battle when it pleased them, how unfavourable soever the circumstances might be. When military virtue was lost, all was gone, for civil virtue had long since departed.

The view given by contemporaries of the then state of the empire is heart-rending. Corruption, injustice, and oppression, in the government and its officers; swarms of barbarians continually pouring in and devastating the provinces; and famine and pestilence to fill up the picture of misery.

The Huns.

A new enemy now appeared in Europe. Wars and commotions in the distant East caused a tide of mingled Turks and Mongols to pour itself on the West. In the reign of Valens, the Romans heard of tribes of Mongol deformity, begotten, some reported, by the devil, who in countless swarms pressed on the eastern frontier of the Goths. This dreadful people was named the Huns.

A. D. 361. All the country from the Black Sea to Livonia was then ruled by the venerable Hermanric, chief of the Goths. He was shortly afterwards murdered. The Goths were divided into two great portions, the West-Goths (Visigoths), governed by the house of the Balti: the East-Góths (Ostrogoths), by that of the Amali. The Huns rarely venturing to meet the West-Goths in battle, continually carried off their wives and children. In the confusion that ensued on the death of Hermanric, and the invasions of the Huns, the West-Gothic princes, Alavivus and Fridigern, proposed to the emperor Valens, that if he would give their nation lands south of the Danube, they would undertake the defence of that frontier. Valens consented; he gave the lands, and, through Ulphilas, had them instructed in the Arian form of Christianity. During a period of fifty years the Huns pastured their herds, and pursued the chase, in the woods and plains of Russia, Poland, and Hungary, without molesting the West-Goths. The East-Goths were among their subjects; but Safrach and Aleth led a portion of them over the Danube.

Wars with the Goths.

The Goths soon found themselves straitened for room in their new abode. They applied to the emperor for permission to trade. He gave orders to the neighbouring governors to conduct it, which they did in such a spirit of monopoly, that the Goths had soon sold their cattle and slaves, and were reduced to part with their children for food. The governors attempted treachery against Fridigern, the Gothic prince; he summoned his countrymen to arms; blood and devastation tracked the march of the Goths from Mœsia towards Constantinople. The orthodox emperor of the West refused aid to the Arian Valens; Terentius, governor of Armenia, did the same; the imperial general, Trajan, was defeated; the populace despaired of victory under an emperor who was the enemy of the Son of God. Meantime the Goths advanced; the flames of the villages were seen from the walls of Constantinople.

Valens marched and encountered the Goths in the plains of Adrianople. Cavalry now composed the main strength of the Roman armies. They could not stand against the firm Gothic infantry; the imperial troops gave way and fled. Valens, wounded, sought refuge in a peasant's cottage, which was set fire to, along with the rest, by the pursuing Goths, and the emperor perished in the flames. A. D. 378.

The Goths approached the walls of Constantinople, and the empress Domnina prepared for a vigorous defence. Unused to sieges, and daunted by the strength of the walls, they retired. Fridigern marched into Greece. Safrach and Aleth turned back to ravage Pannonia.

Valentinian was dead, and his sons, Gratian and Valentinian II., a child of four years, had succeeded him. Gratian associated in the empire Theodosius, a Spaniard by birth, a descendant of Trajan, whose virtues he emulated. The East was committed to the new emperor. His first efforts were to excite discord among 375. 379.

the Goths, and to gain them over to himself. Fridigern shortly after died, and the emperor proposed a conference with his successor Athanaric: a peace was agreed on, a regular subsidy assigned the Goths, and a number of them taken into pay as auxiliaries. The Gothic chief died at Constantinople; and such was the idea the Goths had conceived of the talents and virtues of the emperor, that they declared that so long as he lived they would not appoint another prince.

Gratianus was an able and enlightened prince: he fought with valour and success against the Allemanni; but his army disliked him, because he gave a preference
A. D. to foreign troops. They set up Maximus against him,
383. and Gratian was treacherously murdered.

Maximus drove the young Valentinian out of Italy. He secured the passes of the Alps, and posted himself with a large army near Aquileia; but Theodosius took advantage of his neglect, and defeated him. Maximus
388. fell in the action.

The two emperors now reigned undisturbed, till Valentinian was murdered by the Count Arbogastes and the secretary Eugenius. Theodosius speedily came to avenge him, and defeated his murderers at the foot of
394. the Alps.

A few months after he had obtained the sole power
395. Theodosius died, to the great misfortune and grief of the empire, which he had governed with justice, moderation, and prudence. He was the last who ruled over the whole Roman world.

Theodosius had two sons: Arcadius, the elder, a youth of eighteen, was left the East; and Rufinus, a native of Gaul, became his director: Honorius, a boy of eleven years, held the West, under the guardianship of Stilicho, a Vandal. These ministers, for private ends, introduced confusion into the empire.

The Goths, on the death of Theodosius, had appointed Alaric, of the house of the Balti, their prince. Finding their subsidy ill paid, and perceiving that the justice and valour of Theodosius no longer swayed the

sceptre, they meditated war. Rufinus deemed it a great stroke of policy to throw the evil on Italy. He secretly advised the Goths to turn their arms that way, promising to send no aid to that country. Stilicho, on the other hand, rejoiced at the prospect of war; he took no pains to secure the passes against Alaric, and a Gothic prince was surrounded and slain in the mountains near Fiesole.

The nation of the West-Goths, with wives and children, flocks and herds, broke up from their seats in Mœsia and Hither-Dacia, and advanced through Illyrium, Istria, and the north-east of Italy, without meeting any opposition. They arrived within a few miles of Milan, at that time the imperial residence, and sent a message to inform the emperor that the West-Gothic nation was arrived in Italy, and prayed him either to assign them land, or to try the strength of the two nations in the field. Honorius replied, that they might take land in either Gaul or Spain. Alaric accepted the permission, though in the one country he might have to contend with the Franks, in the other with the Vandals and Suevians. Without committing any act of violence he marched towards the Alps leading into Gaul, and the Goths celebrated Easter in the mountains of Piedmont. In the midst of the festival they were astonished to see that they were followed by a Roman army. The Goths were attacked and defeated by the assailants, and Alaric, filled with rage, turned back on Italy. A. D. 403.

He ravaged Liguria and all the country to Tuscany, and hastened towards Rome. Her fate was averted for a season; but on the 26th August, of the year 1164 from the supposed era of her foundation, Rome surrendered for the first time to a foreign enemy, and saw herself at the mercy of Alaric. The imperial palace and the houses of the great were plundered; much blood was spilt, and many houses fired. He bestowed the purple on one Attalus, then stripped him of it, marched southwards, and subdued Campania and Cala- 409.

bria, as far as the strait. He was meditating, it is said, a passage to Sicily and Africa, and the conquest of that country, when death surprised him at Cosenzo in his 35th year. The whole West-Gothic nation mourned for him, and the neighbouring river was diverted from its course to afford a grave for the Gothic monarch in its bed, and then turned back to its usual channel, that the tomb of Alaric might never be discovered. His brother-in-law, Adolf, (Athaulf) was chosen to succeed him.

Adolf marched back to Rome, where his troops did great injury to the public buildings and works of art. The emperor was forced to give him his sister in marriage. He continued his march to Gaul. All opposi-
A. D. tion gave way before Gothic valour. The country
410. bounded by the Rhone, Loire, and Pyrenees, submitted to the West-Goths, and Toloza (Toulouse) became their capital. They crossed the Pyrenees, and drove the Vandals, Suevians, and the Slavonian Alans to the mountains of Gallicia and Portugal. The Spaniards retained their ancient valour; but the government of the empire was not so beneficial as to deserve to be defended. This kingdom of the West-Goths in Spain lasted till the year 711.

The Caledonians meantime pressed upon Britain; Pharamond (Warmund) and his Franks had settled in the Netherlands; Gundicher (Günther) and his Burgundians seized the country on the Upper Rhine. His capital was Worms. Heruli and Rugians came down into Noricum (Austria); the Langobards took Pannonia (Hungary and a part of Austria); the East-Goths, a part of Thrace. Sebastian and Jovinus raised the standard of rebellion in the empire. Heraclianus, governor of Africa, kept back the corn-ships destined for Rome. In this state of the public affairs Honorius died, leaving the throne of the West to his nephew Va-
423. lentinian, a child of six years of age.

Genseric and Attila.

In the reign of Valentinian III. Africa was lost to the western empire; the cause was the ambition and art of Ætius, the imperial general. Galla Placidia, the mother of the young emperor, governed for him with wisdom. Bonifacius was governor of Africa. Ætius wished to cause enmity between him and the regent. He wrote to Bonifacius, telling him he had been traduced to her, and that she would recall him and put him to death; he represented to Placidia that Bonifacius was meditating rebellion, and that the only way to check was to recall him: she did so; he refused obedience: it was resolved to make war on him. Bonifacius, diffident of his own resources, cast his eyes on the Vandals, now masters of Andalusia: he offered land on the coast of Africa, as the price of their assistance, to their princes Genseric and Gonderic. Genseric, an able, enterprising, and ambitious youth, immediately A. D. crossed the strait. Terror and devastation tracked his 427. route. Bonifacius perceived his error: aided by some forces sent by Theodosius II. emperor of the East, he armed in defence of the country. Genseric defeated both him and the imperial general Aspar. He took Carthage, plundered it, destroyed the nobility, and tortured all ranks to make them discover their treasures. Being an Arian, he relentlessly persecuted the orthodox.

His son Hunneric was married to a West-Gothic princess. As Genseric grew old, he became suspicious: he took it into his head that his daughter-in-law meditated poisoning him, and he cut off her nose and ears, and sent her home to her own country. Then, fearing the vengeance of the West-Goths, and a union between them and the Roman emperor against him, he sent ambassadors to Attila, king of the Huns, to induce him to invade the western empire.

The whole nation of the Huns was united under this able prince. He ruled from the Volga to Hungary; Gepidæ, Langobards, East-Goths, and nations of southern

Germany obeyed him; the emperor Theodosius paid him tribute; 700,000 warriors marched beneath his banners, each Hunnish tribe under its chief. One soul animated the whole; all yielded implicit obedience to the mandate of their great Tanjoo. Attila was generous, and not averse from mercy.

Attila resolved on war. He prepared the way by artifice; he wrote to Theoderic (Dietrich), the West-Gothic king residing at Toulouse, inviting him to unite in a partition of the empire of the Romans, his sworn foes. He wrote to the imperial court, exaggerating the fidelity of the Huns, and proposing to restore the integrity of the empire by a union of their forces to expel the West-Goths from Gaul and Spain. The imperial court saw through the artifice. Valentinian called on all the barbaric monarchs of the West to join in averting the common danger: his call was attended to. The valiant West-Gothic monarch, the Burgundians who dwelt in the modern Burgundy, Dauphiné, Savoy, and West Switzerland, Sangiban, king of the Alans, on the Loire, the towns of Armorica, the community of Paris, the Ripuarian Franks between the Maese and Rhine, the Salian Franks ruled by Meroveus, and the Saxons beyond the Rhine, all took arms to repel the Huns.

From his village-court on the banks of the Theiss, Attila pursued his march through Austria, Styria, the borders of Rhætia and Allemannia, passed the Rhine, defeated at Basil the king of the Burgundians, rapidly advanced till on the Marne in the plains of Croisette, not
A. D. 450. far from Chalons, he encountered the army of the confederates.

The left wing of the confederates was commanded by Ætius, the Roman general, the right by Theoderic, the centre by king Sangiban. One wing of the army of Attila was led by the king of the Gepidæ, the other by the princes of the East-Goths. Attila ordered the principal efforts to be directed against the West-Goths and Alans, and desired all to fix their eyes on him. The fight was long and bloody. Theoderic fell, encouraging

his men. At the approach of night, Attila found it necessary to retreat. The West-Goths burned to avenge the death of their king. Ætius judged it more politic to reserve the Huns as a counterpoise to them: he also wished to prolong the war, and his own command. Attila, as the country was unable to support his troops, returned home.

A. D.

Vengeance, or, as is said, the invitation of a sister 452.
of the emperor, who offered him her hand, drew Attila to Italy. Aquileia resisted in vain: it was levelled to the ground; its male inhabitants put to the sword, the women and children led into slavery. All the towns of northern Italy were taken and plundered. He entered Ravenna through a breach made by the citizens in their walls, to testify their submission. Leo, the venerable bishop of Rome, came to meet him, bearing gifts, and accompanied by nobles. He besought him to spare the city where the apostle had preached, and which Alaric had not violated. Attila was moved: he drew off his army, laden with spoil, to pasture their herds once more beyond the Danube. Dreaded by the East and West, Attila died soon after, on the night of his marriage with 453.
the fair Hildichunde, and with him expired the power of the Huns.

Fall of the Western Empire.

Valentinian was a worthless voluptuary. Impatient of restraint, he caused the valiant Ætius to be assassinated, himself giving the first blow. Shortly after, it is said, he mortally offended Maximus, one of his vicious favourites, by carrying off and violating his wife; and the injured husband incited some of the friends of Ætius to murder him. Maximus was made emperor, and he married 455
Eudoxia, the widow of his predecessor. In a moment of unguarded confidence he revealed to her the secret of his being the chief agent in the death of Valentinian. Eudoxia, who had loved the husband of her youth, resolved to avenge him. She wrote to Africa to

Genseric, calling upon him to avenge the murder of him, who had so many years left him in undisturbed possession of the fertile regions of Africa. Genseric obeyed the summons. On intelligence of his approach, all the principal citizens of Rome fled to the Sabine and Tuscan mountains. Maximus was put to death by the people. No resistance was offered to the Vandals. Fourteen days they abode in Rome, which Leo, its bishop, with difficulty saved from conflagration. The empress and her daughters, the flower of the youth, the artists and mechanics, were brought to Africa. The works of art were embarked for the same place, but were lost on the passage. All the south of Italy was wasted by the Vandals.

A. D.
456. Avitus, a man of noble descent and virtuous life, was elevated to the purple in Gaul, but almost immediately laid down his dignity. The Romans then chose Ma-
457. jorianus, a brave warrior. He marched against the Alans, who were threatening a descent into Italy, but
461. was murdered by his own soldiers. His successor was Severus. The Alans, who were a tribe of Slavonian race, had settled on the Loire in Gaul. Finding themselves straitened between the Franks and the West-Goths, they abandoned that country, passed the Alps, and reached Bergamo. Here they were defeated by the imperial general, Richimir, who shortly afterwards deposed the emperor, and raised his own father-in-law, Anthe-
467. mius, to the throne. He designed to govern under the name of the emperor. Anthemius was refractory: a battle was fought near Rome. Richimir was victorious; he put Anthemius to death, wasted and plundered the city in a dreadful manner, and survived but forty days. Olybrius, married to a daughter of
473. Valentinian, was raised to the throne, which he occupied but seven months. Glycerius, a lord of the court, was chosen by the Romans; but the Eastern emperor set up
474. Julius Nepos against him, and Glycerius retired and took orders, and became bishop of Porto.

The emperor sent his general, Orestes, to defend the

passage of the Alps against the barbarians, who were continually advancing. By means of his army Orestes forced him to resign, and he invested with the purple his own son, Romulus Augustus, a youth of amiable manners and cultivated mind. A. D. 475

The Heruli, a people whom we first find seated in Pomerania, on the shores of the Baltic, had gradually proceeded southwards. They fed their herds in Pannonia, then roved into Noricum, and now appeared in Italy, with other tribes, headed by the valiant Odoacer. Pavia, defended by the father of the young emperor, resisted. It was taken, and Orestes beheaded. All the cities opened their gates at the approach of Odoacer. Romulus laid down sceptre, purple, and crown, and entered the camp of the Herulian chief. His life was spared, and he was sent to a castle in Campania.

Thus, in the days of a prince of the same name as her supposed founder, in the 1229th year of the city, fell the empire of Rome. She had by valour and prudence risen from the smallest beginnings; had step by step enlarged her dominions, absorbed one after another all the nations of the civilised world that surrounded the Mediterranean, had adopted their vices, had lost her strength by internal corruption. The mighty colossus had long tottered on its base; each tribe of the Gotho-German stock had by turns agitated it: the last and decisive effort was reserved for the dwellers of Rügen and Pomerania, a tribe unheard of in her days of glory. 476.

We here quit the ancient world. New scenes open, new manners appear; the gods of Greece and Rome have vanished: a different religion is dominant, before which another ancient system also gives way; while the wilds of Arabia send forth another religion, which, in its rapidity of diffusion and extent of dominion, will vie with that which emanated from its vicinity six centuries before. We shall meet limited monarchy the prevalent form of government; view the amazing fabric of ecclesiastical dominion; and contemplate feudalism, with its chivalry and its martial spirit.

OUTLINES OF HISTORY.

PART II.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

CHAP. I.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BARBARIANS IN THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

Introduction.

HITHERTO the stream of history has run in one nearly continuous channel, varying its appellation as the chief power fell into the hands of a different people. Assyrians, Medes, and Persians, have succeeded each other in the possession of Asiatic empire. Greece has risen on their ruins; and all have been finally absorbed in the wide dominion of Rome. The minor streams of smaller states have only contributed to swell the current of empire. The face of history now alters; the last great empire is dissolved; no state will appear of such magnitude as to absorb all others; numerous states will run a parallel course, mutually affecting each other. Our plan must suit itself to the altered condition of the world: henceforth we shall divide the course of events into periods, under each of which we shall view the then state of human affairs.

The middle ages occupy ten centuries of the history of man. Of these, the six first are justly denominated the *dark* ages. A long night succeeded to the brilliant day of Rome, whose sun had set in blood and gloom. In the

four last centuries of this period, it will brighten more and more into the perfect day of modern cultivation and refinement. Religion will purify, law will resume its empire, manners will soften, literature and science will revive.

The Gotho-Germans.

The tribes that overturned the western empire were all of this great race, which overspread nearly all the northern part of Europe. Their original seat was probably east of the Caspian. The affinity between their languages and those of India and Persia is striking; but the date of their migration is anterior to occidental history. They were distinguished by their huge stature, blue eyes, and fair complexions. Their religious system was a deification of the powers of nature; it still subsists in the Icelandic Eddas.

We shall now give a concise view of the states founded by them on the ruins of the empire of Rome.

East-Goths in Italy.

On the death of Attila, the East-Goths threw off their subjection to the Huns. Under their princes of the house of the Amali they dwelt from the Danube to the Save. They received gifts from the Eastern emperors; they gave hostages in return. Among these was Theoderic (Dietrich), a natural son of their king Theodemir, a youth of talent and hope. Theodemir extended his conquests to the Alps. His son returned at the age of eighteen, accomplished in the knowledge of the Romans, and, unknown to his father, defeated a Sarmatian prince. The Goths now extended into Illyria and Macedonia, and Theoderic succeeded his father. The emperor Zeno, a weak prince, feared the ruler of the Goths: he invested him with the consular robe, and allowed him to triumph. But the Goths still felt themselves straitened; and Zeno adopted the resolution of formally be-

stowing on Theoderic Italy, now bowed beneath the sceptre of the king of the Heruli.

The Gothic nation, accompanied by their families, flocks, and herds, joyfully set forth under their prince, of twenty-four years of age, to take possession of the blooming region assigned them. Twice on the borders of Italy were the subjects of Odoacer defeated. The Gothic warriors marched through the future Venetian territory. Odoacer fled to Rome, but found its gates closed against him. He shut himself up in Ravenna, defended by its morasses, works, and 20,000 men. In the third year of the siege, Odoacer was murdered, and the city surrendered. Theoderic forthwith assumed the Roman purple. A. D. 493.

At Rome, where he was received with every demonstration of honour, he sought to restore every thing to its state under the emperors. He governed with justice: though an Arian, he persecuted not the orthodox, but testified all becoming respect for their bishops. Though so illiterate as not to write, he encouraged learning: his chancellor was the learned Cassiodorus; the philosophic Boethius was one of his ministers. Allied to most of the barbaric princes, he was a father and mediator among them. His wife was daughter to Childebert, king of the Franks; his sister was married to Hunneric, king of the Vandals; his niece, to the king of the Thuringians; his daughters to the monarchs of the Burgundians and West-Goths. Theoderic left no son. When he felt the approach of death, he summoned his nobles and officers, commended to them his daughter Amalaswinde, and her son Athalaric, a child of ten years; advised regard to order, and to the senate and people of Rome, and the maintenance of peace with the Eastern empire. 526.

The ambition of the mother of Athalaric induced her to associate with her in the regency her cousin Theudat. Her son died of disease, and her ungrateful colleague deprived her of life. 534.

Meantime the Vandal kingdom in Africa had fallen

beneath the arms of Belisarius, the able general of the emperor Justinian, and Gelimir, its last sovereign, had been led in triumph in Constantinople. Orders were
A. D. now issued to Belisarius to avenge the daughter of Theo-
536. deric. Theudat was dethroned by the Gothic nation, and Vitig seated on the throne of the Amali. Belisarius denied the right of the Goths to elect a king over a country originally Roman. From Sicily, which had already submitted, he passed over to Italy, took Naples, then Rome, which he fortified; advanced into Tuscany, and defeated the Goths at Perusia. Milan and the neighbouring towns rebelled against the Arian Goths;
538. and Vitig called from Burgundy, now under the Franks, 10,000 volunteers against them. The defence of Milan was long and obstinate; the inhabitants endured the extremities of famine; but at length the Frankish arms were successful, and neither age nor sex was spared in the carnage. Vitig lay fourteen months before Rome, which was relieved by Belisarius; Ravenna was taken,
539. and Vitig led a captive to Constantinople.

The Franks fought in Italy with the success which has always attended their arms in that country — victory, then defeat. The Goths were still animated by their usual heroism: two kings were elected and de-
540. throned. In the person of Totila, the third monarch, the fame of Theoderic revived. Victory attended his arms; he took the towns, and levelled their walls. Belisarius was absent quelling an insurrection in Africa: he returned to see Rome taken before his eyes. Her fortifications were destroyed; her inhabitants of all ranks driven from their homes, that she might never again be able to resist the Gothic arms. Master of Italy, Totila now emulated the mildness of Theoderic; he recalled her population to Rome, and lived as a father among his people.

Court intrigue had recalled Belisarius; the conduct of the Italian war was committed to the valiant eunuch Narses. With the title of proconsul, and with Langobardic auxiliaries he entered Italy. The Goths were

defeated near Tajina, and Totila slain. The nobles of the nation raised Teias to the throne in Pavia; but Nocera soon beheld his end, and that of the Gothic dominion. A feeble attempt on Italy was made by the Allemanni, now subject to the Franks. A. D. 552.

Under the administration of Narses Italy enjoyed abundance, tranquillity, and happiness. Rome, too, gradually rose again. But Narses fell under the displeasure of the emperor Justin II. He left Rome and retired to Naples, whence he sent letters inviting Alboin (Albwin), king of the Lombards, to the invasion of Italy. 568.

The Lombards in Italy.

The Longobards or Lombards had occupied the abandoned seats of the East-Goths in Pannonia. Alboin had lately conquered the Gepidæ, a kindred tribe, drunk from the scull of their king Kunimund, and married his daughter, Rosamund, when he received the invitation of Narses, On the 22d April, 568, the whole nation of the Lombards, with 20,000 Saxon confederates, abandoned Pannonia. On a lovely morning of spring they with rapture first beheld, from the summit of the Alps, the magnificent region which was to become their own. Their march through the country was orderly and peaceful; no plunder or devastation took place; nothing was omitted to conciliate the affections of the inhabitants. Pavia fell before their arms, and became their capital. In a short time no part of Italy remained to the empire but Ravenna, Rome, and some of the eastern seacoast. This province was governed by exarchs or proconsuls. The authority of the emperors gradually diminished in Rome, and was transferred to the popes, of whom the virtues of many rendered them worthy of the authority they enjoyed; and Rome might justly esteem herself happy, when directed by the meekness, piety, and zeal of her more distinguished pontiffs.

The Burgundians.

Bordering on the Lombards were the Burgundians, who possessed the ancient country of the Allobroges. On entering this country the Burgundians had required of the former possessors to give up to them two-thirds of the lands, one half of the woods, houses, and gardens, and one-third of the slaves. Agriculture and pasturage were the occupation of the free Burgundians; the arts were exercised by the servile classes. They were one of the first of the barbarian nations to form a code of laws; and the Burgundian code is distinguished from that of the other nations, by not allowing a composition for blood. When they entered Gaul, they had themselves instructed, during seven days, in the principles of Christianity; on the eighth they were baptized.

The princes of the Burgundians sought and obtained from the court of Constantinople the Patriciate or government over the original inhabitants: their office and their large possessions assured them authority over their own countrymen. A powerful nobility controlled their authority. Gondebald, one of their sovereigns, attempted to raise his Roman subjects to an equality with the Burgundians, to diminish their influence; but all ranks of the latter assembled at Geneva, and forced him to abandon his project.

To secure the crown to his son Sigmund, his father, Gondebald had him, during his own lifetime, elevated,
A.D. after their ancient manner, on the shields of the Burgun-
515. dians, and procured for him the patriciate from the emperor. Sigmund was married to the daughter of the great Theoderic, the East-Goth. After her death, he sacrificed her son to the calumnies of his second wife. Theoderic sent troops to avenge his grandson, and he roused the sons of Clovis (Chlodvig) the Frank to gratify the vengeance of Clotilda, their mother, whose father had been put to death by his brother Gondebald, the father of Sigmund. The Franks entered the country: Sigmund fled to a convent he had founded; he was taken and

slain. His brother Gondemar and the nation carried on the struggle during ten years. At last Gondemar was overcome, and the race of Clovis ruled over Burgundy. The national independence, the laws, and manners still remained. A. D. 534.

The Allemanni.

Northwards of the Burgundians the Allemanni had established themselves along both sides of the Rhine, from its source to its confluence with the Moselle and Maine. They neglected the arts of civil life; their herds occupied and sustained them: they loved the agitation of war, and their rude policy caused them to demolish the walls of conquered towns.

Cologne, the territory of the Ripuarian Franks, having been invaded by them, Clovis, the Salian, marched to the aid of his allies. He met the Allemanni near Zülpich. A long and desperate battle ensued; victory was declaring for the Allemanni, when Clovis, still a heathen, raised his hands to heaven, and invoked the God of the Christians. His Roman soldiers were stimulated to increased exertion; they threw themselves impetuously on the foe. The Allemanni were broken, their king was slain, and the people submitted to the rule of the king of the Franks. 496.

The Franks.

In the third century, the warlike association of the Franks, seated on the marshy confines of the Lower Rhine, began to overrun Gaul. They had been gradually acquiring a firm footing in that country. They were divided into several tribes, governed by different chiefs of the family of Meroveus. Clovis (Chlodvig) son of Chilperic succeeded, at the age of fifteen, to the command of the Salian tribe. Ambitious of conquest, he led his warriors from his little kingdom of the Batavian island into Gaul. Numerous auxiliaries crowded to a standard which held forth the prospect of conquest and plunder. Clovis, with rigid impartiality, divided

the booty of each victory among his followers; but in-
A. D. discriminate plunder was severely prohibited and pu-
486. nished. Syagrius, who ruled as king over Soissons and the neighbouring country, and whose equity and justice had gained him a mild and beneficial influence over the Burgundians and Franks, was the first potentate attacked by the Frankish chief. A battle decided the fate of Syagrius, who fled to the court of Toulouse, where his life was sacrificed to the menaces of Clovis. The district of Tongres was the next acquisition of Clovis, made in the tenth year of his reign. The battle of Zülpich, just narrated, gave him the sovereignty over the Allemanni. His queen, Clotilda, was a Burgundian princess, and a Christian: her entreaties, the victory at Zülpich, or politic views, perhaps a union of all these motives, led Clovis to yield a willing ear to the arguments of the Christian bishops, and he was followed to the font by 3000 of his warriors.

The form of Christianity embraced by Clovis was the Catholic. Nothing could have been more advantageous to him, at least in a temporal point of view. The West-Goth and Burgundian princes were Arians; and though they treated their Catholic clergy and subjects with the utmost gentleness, the latter could not endure patiently the dominion of heretics. A large portion of their subjects, therefore, looked up to the orthodox king of the Franks, and were ready to aid his enterprises against their Arian sovereigns. Alaric, king of the West-Goths, was young; his subjects had for many years enjoyed the luxury of peace; his realms were fair and fruitful; he and his Goths were Arian sectaries. In an assembly of his nobles and warriors at Paris, now the seat of his government, Clovis expressed his grief, that the fairest part of Gaul should be in the hands of Arians, and invited his warriors to join in the conquest and division of it. Such motives were not to be resisted; a numerous army soon took the field. Alaric roused his Goths to arms: his troops outnumbered the Franks; but the influence and the arts of the clergy

were with Clovis. Miracles it was even said came in aid of the righteous cause. The river of Vienne was swollen; but a white hart appeared to conduct the Catholic army to a ford. A bright meteor hung each night over the cathedral of Poitiers; and its flame, like the pillar in the wilderness, served to guide the true believers towards the station of the infidels. Ten miles beyond that city the armies encountered. Alaric fell by the hand of his rival, and the rout of the Goths was complete. The whole of Aquitain was conquered and colonised by the Franks, and the Gothic dominions in Gaul reduced to the province of Septimania, a strip extending along the Mediterranean. The emperor of the East conferred on Clovis the dignity of consul and patrician; titles of no intrinsic value, but which gave him estimation in the eyes of his Gallic subjects.

A. D.

On the death of Clovis, his extensive dominions were 511.
divided among his four sons. Thierry (Dietrich) had Austrasia, the eastern portion, embracing a great part of western Germany: his capital was Metz. Clodomir resided at Orleans; Childibert, at Paris; Clotaire, at Soissons. These princes reduced Burgundy, in the conquest of which Clodomir fell. The dominions of Clovis had again a single master, in the person of Clotaire, his youngest son by Clotilda. The valour of 558.
Thierry, the eldest, had added Thuringia to his dominions. The empire was again divided, and again reunited, in the person of another Clotaire, great-grandson of Clovis. His son, Dagobert I., was an able prince; 613
but after him the sovereigns of the Merovingian house became utterly insignificant. Their dominions were divided into two portions, Austrasia and Neustria; the latter containing the former kingdoms of Paris, Orleans, and Soissons. Burgundy was dependent on Neustria; but Aquitain was separated from the time of Dagobert, and governed by dukes descended from his brother Aribert. Officers, called Mayors of the Palace, whose original employment had been the presentation of petitions, gradually usurped all power, and eventually the throne.

The Anglo-Saxons.

On the decline of the empire, the Roman legions were withdrawn from Britain. The inhabitants, enervated by civilisation and a long peace, were assailed by the Picts and Scots, and their coasts were infested by the incursions of the tribes of the north. Vortigern, who at that time enjoyed the supremacy over the Britons, deemed it the wisest policy to gain the alliance of some of these last, and he engaged Hengist and Horsa, two Saxon chiefs, who were sailing with three
A. D. 449. ships along the coast, to enter his service. With their aid the Caledonians were reduced to peace. The isle of Thanet was assigned to these useful allies. A large body of Saxons sailed from Germany and joined them in that place. The Saxon chiefs then persuaded the British king to invite over more of their countrymen, and plant them in the north. He assented, and a third fleet sailed from Germany. Peace did not long continue between Vortigern and his allies. Saxons, Jutes, Angles, poured over in vast numbers: adventurers from all parts joined them. A long and bloody contest ended in giving the Saxons possession of all the plain country of Britain: the original natives could only maintain themselves in Cornwall, Wales, and the district along the western coast, in the north: a portion passed over to Armorica, and gave that country its present name — Bretagne. In the conquered districts, the original na-
582. tives were reduced to a state of thraldom, and nearly exterminated.

Their conquests were divided by the Saxons into a number of separate and independent kingdoms. The greatest number at any time was eight; but conquest, inheritance, or other causes, frequently reduced them to seven, six, five, four, three, which were again dissolved, and the number increased. The usual train of murders, usurpations, tyranny, and oppression that accompanied the various lines of barbarian princes settled in the Roman empire, distinguished the Anglo-Saxon mon-

archies; but, with their barbarism and their vices, they retained their freedom and the germs of those institutions of which England is now so justly proud.

The West-Goths in Spain.

The nature of the country has always favoured the defence of Spain. Its conquest engaged the Roman legions during 171 years; and the same period elapsed from the arrival of the Gothic king Adolphi in Catalonia, before the last king of the Suevi in that country was taken, and the whole peninsula submitted to the Gothic rule. A. D. 414.

The history of the Gothic monarchs in Spain is a tissue of murders, usurpations, and all the evils attending elective monarchy among an uncivilised people. In 124 years, Leuvigild, the first monarch of all Spain, had seventeen successors. When the monarchs embraced the Catholic faith, the influence of the clergy greatly increased; and though the ardent zeal of the prelates, in their numerous councils, inculcated persecution, many laws beneficial to the people in general were enacted in them; and the Visigoth code breathes a more enlightened policy than those of the other states founded on the ruins of Rome.

During a great part of this period the coast of Spain was under the dominion of the Byzantine emperors, who encouraged the disaffection of the orthodox subjects of the Arian Goths. When Recared, one of these monarchs, embraced the Catholic faith, the pretext for refusing allegiance was removed, and the Gothic monarchy had only its own internal weakness to dread. 589.

The Byzantine Empire.

The eastern or Byzantine empire, so called from the ancient name of its capital, continued to exist to the end of the middle ages; but greatly declined from the rank of the Roman empire, and now only one among many of equal power and dignity. Through the early part of

this period it possessed nearly all that was apportioned to it by Theodosius; and, in the reign of Justinian, Africa, the greater part of Italy, and the coast of Spain, were annexed to it. Its external enemies were the Persians, the Huns, and other tribes on its northern frontiers; internally it was agitated by the contention of religious parties, for which a remedy was vainly sought in the assembling of general councils of the prelates to settle by their votes what was incapable of being determined; and the conduct and character of the majority of those who met in solemn assembly at Ephesus, Chalcedon, and Constantinople, to decide on the nature of the Son of God, showed how small a portion of his spirit was abiding among them. The city of Constantinople was continually thrown into disorder by the furious contentions and mutual massacres of the blue and green factions of the Hippodrome, and their respective partisans and favourites.

A. D.
395. Arcadius, the son of Theodosius, was a weak, insig-
408. nificant prince, entirely governed by his empress and his faithless minister Ruffinus. His son, Theodosius II., partook of his father's weakness of character; and eunuchs and monks exercised unlimited power over his mind. The powerful Attila threatened the throne of Byzantium, and the feeble successor of Constantine trembled and paid tribute; but his father had had the good sense and magnanimity to commend his tender youth to the regard and protection of Yezdejird, the able monarch of Persia, the enlightened tolerator of Christianity; and during his reign the empire was unmolested on that side. The hours of Theodosius were devoted to study, to the chase, and to the occupations of his court; and he has the honour of being the first monarch who caused a collection of the laws of the empire to be made. The repose of his latter days was disturbed by the first council of Ephesus; wherein the turbulent Cyril of Alexandria, by violence and cruelty, settled the disputed question of the nature of the meek and lowly Jesus, in opposition to his rival, the less fortunate, but perhaps more pious, Nestorius, of Constantinople.

A. D.

Pulcheria, the wise and talented sister of Theodosius, 450.
succeeded. Feeling the necessity of masculine energy at the helm of the state, she gave her hand to Marcian, a senator, who had in early life distinguished himself in the Persian and other wars. With true Roman spirit, Marcian refused to continue the tribute of his feeble predecessor to the king of the Huns. Attila stormed and vowed vengeance; but his attention being at that time drawn towards the West, he confined himself to threats against the Byzantine monarch.

On the death of Marcian the throne was filled by Leo, 457
a prince not unworthy of it; but he stained his fame by his ingratitude to Aspar, to whom he owed his elevation. His infant grandson succeeded, whose father, an Isaurian by birth, but who had taken the Grecian name of Zeno, governed in his stead. The infant emperor dying prematurely, suspicion fell on his father; and Verina, the widow of Leo, drove him from his throne, which she bestowed on her brother Basilicus. But this prince, having offended his sister, a conspiracy delivered him and his family into the power of the relentless Zeno, who recovered his throne. On the death of Zeno, his widow, 491
the virtuous Ariadne, bestowed her hand and the empire upon Anastatius, a domestic of the palace, whose character is expressed by the popular cry at his accession: "Reign as you have lived!"

After a reign of twenty-seven years, Anastatius died, leaving no heirs. The eunuch Amantius determined to give the purple to some one in whose obsequiousness he might confide. To assure his measures, he intrusted a large sum of money, to be distributed by way of donative among the guards, to Justin their commander, originally a Dacian peasant. Justin was false to his trust: he gained the suffrages of the soldiers for himself; and the illiterate peasant was seated on the throne of the 518.
Cæsars, which he occupied not discreditably during a reign of nine years.

Justinian succeeded his uncle Justin. The talent of 527.
this prince lay in the selection of fit persons to execute

his plans of war and legislation; for he never himself appeared in the field, and his mind was narrow and confined. Yet Justinian has the fame of forming a regular and copious body of jurisprudence, embracing, digesting, and simplifying the mass of judicial wisdom, which had accumulated under the kings, consuls, and emperors. This important work was executed by the ablest lawyers of the age, under the superintendence of the great Tribonian. The emperor discerned also in the camp the merit of Belisarius, a general worthy to stand in competition with those of any age. The Roman arms, under the conduct of Belisarius, checked the pride of Persia; overturned the Vandalic kingdom in Africa, and reduced that country to a province of the empire; conquered the East-Goths of Italy, and led their king a captive to Constantinople. But the great military and private virtues of Belisarius were shaded by too slavish a submission to the arbitrary will of an ungrateful court, and too great blindness to the vices of his wife, the wanton and vindictive Antonina. The emperor himself was the slave of his passion for the empress Theodora; who, from the condition of the vilest of prostitutes and most shameless of pantomimists, had been elevated to a share of the imperial throne. Justinian had a thirst for fame; he adorned the capital with stately buildings. The church of St. Sophia, now a mosch, remains a monu-
A. D. ment of his taste.
565. One of his nephews, Justin II., was the successor of Justinian. In his reign Narses, the valiant eunuch, offended, as is said, by an expression of the empress Sophia, invited the Lombards into Italy; and that country was lost to the empire. Disease afflicted Justin: he was unable to leave his palace and attend to the affairs of his people; his mind was overwhelmed with the magnitude and responsibility of his office; he resolved to appoint a successor, and abdicate. The empress recommended Tiberius, the captain of his guard. Justin transferred to him his diadem, in the presence of the patriarch and the senate; and during the four years he

survived, he experienced every attention from the worthy object of his generosity.

A. D.

Tiberius governed with every kingly virtue. Success 578.
crowned the arms of his generals in the Persian war; but a fatal disease seized on the excellent monarch, and, in four years after the death of Justin, carried him off, amidst the tears of his people. He gave his daughter and his diadem to Maurice, a prince worthy to occupy his throne. But in a war against the Avars, a tribe of 582.
Turkish race, Maurice refused to redeem the prisoners who had fallen into their hands. The army mutinied, and invested Phocas, a centurion, with the purple; and by his order Maurice and his children were murdered.

The vices and tyranny of Phocas disgraced the throne 602.
which had been adorned by the virtues of his predecessors. Every province was ripe for insurrection. Heraclius, the exarch of Africa, refused tribute and obedience to the tyrannic centurion. Crispus, the son-in-law of Phocas, who trembled for his life, joined the senate in calling upon Heraclius to save the empire. The task was committed by Heraclius to his son of the same name. An African fleet appeared before Constantinople: the tyrant was deserted, taken, and put to death.

The reign of Heraclius was a series of struggles 610.
against foreign enemies. Chosroes (Khosroo), the Persian monarch, under pretext of avenging the death of Maurice, had made war on Phocas. The first intelligence Heraclius received was that of the capture of Antioch. Jerusalem was next taken by the victorious Persians; they poured into Egypt, and the Persian standard was carried as far as Tripoli. Another Persian army lay during ten years encamped on the Bosphorus, in view of Constantinople. The Avars occupied Thrace, and pressed the capital; and Heraclius narrowly escaped becoming the victim of their perfidy. A peace was at length granted by the Persian king, on the condition of a most enormous tribute. During the time allotted for the collection of it, Heraclius prepared for a

desperate struggle: he put forth the soul and energy of a hero, and in six glorious campaigns retrieved the honour of the empire; Assyria, and the regions beyond the Tigris, then beheld, for the first time, the victorious standards of Rome. Meanwhile the heroism of the emperor was caught by his people, and the Avars and their allies were driven with loss from before Constantinople. But while Heraclius and Chosroes were thus mutually exhausting their strength, a new enemy, who meditated the overthrow of both, was looking on with secret satisfaction; and in the heart of Arabia a storm was preparing to burst over both their empires.

Persia.

We have seen that the Parthians had recovered the greater part of the original dominions of the Persian kings from the descendants of Seleucus, and had long proved the most formidable enemies of them and of the Romans. Their empire had gradually declined; and Ardeshir, or Artaxerxes, a Persian, and an officer of reputation in the army of Artaban, the Parthian king, and who was, or gave himself out to be, a lineal descendant of the ancient Persian monarchs, through his valour and conduct
A. D. succeeded in wresting the sceptre from the feeble grasp
226. of the Arsacides, and the empire again became Persian.

The restoration of every thing to its original state in the glorious days of the ancient monarchs, was the first object of Ardeshir. The Mobeds or priests of the national religion were summoned from their retirement to consult on the re-establishment of the worship of Ormuzd in its original purity; for though the ancient religion had not undergone any persecution from the Arsacides, it had not been held in honour, and its ministers had languished in obscurity. But now, under a prince who regarded himself as the son of the Kaianides, the religious system, which had animated the soul and nerved the arm of that illustrious house, was again to flourish; the disciple of Zerdusht (Zoroaster)

again to combat beneath the banner of Ormuzd, against Ahriman and the powers of darkness; and the sacred fire to flame once more on a thousand altars.

By the side of religion stood military renown. Ardeshir put forth a claim to all the countries once contained in the Persian empire, and carried on heavy wars with the Romans for Anterior Asia, where, in Armenia, they still maintained on a throne the remnant of the Parthian royal family. Shahpoor (Sapores), the son of Ardeshir, continued the wars of his father, and extended his empire towards the west. The Roman emperor Valerian ended his days a captive in the hands of this monarch. Galerius, whom Diocletian raised to the dignity of Cæsar, forced the Persian king, Narses, to a peace, which lasted forty years, and gave Osrhoene and Nisibis to the empire.

The Persian Yezdejird was the friend of the emperor Arcadius, and was suspected of Christianity by his orthodox subjects. Bahram, the succeeding king, was one of the best and greatest of the Sassanides. Feroze made war on the Nephthalites, or White Huns, whose king had been his friend and protector, and lost his life in battle against them. His son, Cobad, waged war with the emperor Anastatius. His more illustrious son and successor, known in the West as Chosroes, in the East as Noosheerwan the Just, continued the wars of his father through the reign of Justinian; but in Belisarius he met an opponent such as the empire had never yet opposed to the generals of the Persian kings. The struggle was maintained throughout the life of Noosheerwan with mutual loss, and the final gain of neither. Hormuz, his son, in despite of the careful education bestowed by his father, became a tyrant: the provinces rose in rebellion; the Roman arms advanced on one side, the Turkish Khan on another. A hero, Bahram, saved his country, and usurped the throne. Hormuz died in prison; his son, Khosroo, fled to the protection of Maurice; the Roman arms and his faithful subjects restored him to the throne of his fathers: Bahram fled to the Turks, and there died by

A. D. 488. 579. 590.

poison. Khosroo, as we have just seen, took arms to
A. D. avenge the murder of his protector Maurice, and carried
628. on a long and bloody war with Heraclius. Defeated by the Romans, he was murdered by his son Siroes. The parricide enjoyed the fruit of his crimes but eight months. Twelve years longer the empire was agitated by anarchy and bloodshed, till the victorious arms of the Arabian khalifs ended the dominion of the house of Sassan in the person of Yezdejird III.

CHAP. II.

THE TIMES OF MOHAMMED AND THE FIRST KHALIFS.

Mohammed.

WHILE Chosroes of Persia was pursuing his dreams of recovering and enlarging the empire of Cyrus, and Heraclius was gallantly defending the empire of the Cæsars against him; while idolatry and metaphysics were diffusing their baleful influence through the church of Christ, and the simplicity and purity of the Gospel were nearly lost beneath the mythology, which occupied the place of that of ancient Greece and Rome, the seeds of a new empire, and of a new religion, were sown in the inaccessible deserts of Arabia.

569. At the time when the sceptre of Constantinople was swayed by the pious nephew of Justinian, and that of Persia by the vigorous hand of Noosheerwan the Just, was born in the city of Mecca, in Arabia, Mohammed, the son of Abdallah, and grandson of Abd-ul-Motallib, one of the richest and most generous chiefs of the Koreish. Mohammed was early left an orphan; his uncles were numerous and powerful, and, in the division of his grandfather's property, his share was but five camels and a female slave. His uncle Aboo Taleeb reared him: at the age of twenty-five he entered the service of Khadijah, a rich widow of Mecca; and with her merchan-

dise accompanied the caravans to Damascus. The honour and fidelity of the factor to his mistress was exemplary; the person of Mohammed was handsome and dignified, his aspect majestic, his eye penetrating, his smile irresistible, his voice harmonious, and eloquence flowed from his tongue. Khadijah admired and loved; the generosity of Aboo Taleeb made up the deficiency of his nephew's fortune: she gave him her hand and her wealth, and thus raised him to his proper rank in society. The gratitude and affection of the son of Abdallah caused the noble matron never to regret her act.

Mohammed was of a serious contemplative mind. He had long been convinced of the great truth of the unity of the Deity, and he mourned over the idolatry of his countrymen. In the solitude of a cavern near Mecca, whither he used to retire for meditation, he reflected on the best mode of bringing them to an acknowledgment of the truth. Arabian tradition spake of ancient prophets sent to reclaim men from error; Moses and Jesus were, he knew, commissioned from heaven to teach; he may have expected a similar commission; his enthusiasm may have beguiled his imagination, and in ecstatic vision the angel Gabriel possibly may have appeared to descend to him: but it is far more probable that he conceived that the end justified the means; that the arguments of reason, which he had, perhaps, already tried, would have no effect on the obtuse minds of the adorers of 300 idols; that only as the envoy of heaven could he look for attention, and that his first vision of Gabriel was as fictitious as his latter ones notoriously were.

A. D.
In the 40th year of his age, Mohammed announced 609.
to his wife Khadijah, his slave Zeid, his pupil Ali, and his friend Aboo Beker, a direct commission from God to preach the doctrine of his Unity. They may have believed, they may have seen the distant prospects of temporal power and glory that awaited them; they acknowledged the prophet. During the next three years, ten of the principal citizens of Mecca embraced the new faith. In the fourth year, he offered the bless-

ing to his own kindred, the race of Hashem; and was warned in vain by Aboo Taleeb, the father of Ali, to abandon his impracticable project. Ten years longer he preached publicly and privately in Mecca to the inhabitants, and assembled pilgrims, warning them to embrace the truth, and to remember the fate of the tribes of Ad and Thamood, whose impenitence had brought down the vengeance of offended heaven.

Persecution was at length employed against him and his disciples. As long as Aboo Taleeb lived, he protected his nephew, though he rejected his prophetic claims; but he died: the faithful Khadijah soon followed him; Aboo Sofian, a declared enemy, succeeded to the place and power of Aboo Taleeb; and the death of Mohammed was resolved on. Timely information enabled him and his friend Aboo Beker to fly to the concealment of a cavern; where, during three days, they escaped the perquisitions of their enemies. They then mounted their camels and fled towards Yatreb: on the road they were
A. D. overtaken; but by prayers and promises they escaped.
622. This memorable event, denominated the Hejra, or *Flight*, gave name and origin to the era by which years are counted in all countries professing the tenets of Islam.

At Yatreb, henceforth called Medinat-en-Nabi (*the City of the Prophet*), he was received with every testimonial of respect. Its principal citizens had already formed with him at Mecca a treaty of conversion and alliance; and the people had ratified the compact, and now submitted to his rule as prophet and king. War ensued between his new subjects and his foes at Mecca: the white banner of the prophet was soon seen to float before the gates of Medina; and his sacred person was not unsparingly exposed in the tumult of the conflict.

Mohammed may have been originally only an *enthusiast*, and have dreamed of no other weapons for the diffusion of his faith than those of eloquence and persuasion. At the head of an army he became a *fanatic*. The sublime doctrine of the Unity might, he saw, be made the foundation of temporal dominion. The Koran

— the book of his law — now breathes a fiercer tone, and the sword is to be called to the aid of the truth. Henceforth we are to contemplate the prophet as a prince and conqueror at the head of armies. The battle of Beder was the commencement of his career of victory. Aboo Sofian was, with only thirty or forty followers, conducting a caravan of 1000 camels: a party of the troops of the prophet, in number 313, lay in wait for it; the Koreish, to the amount of 100 horse and 850 foot, advanced to its protection. The prophet and his troops lay between the caravan and the troops of Mecca: he determined to assail the latter; exhorted his men, ascended a pulpit, and called on God for the aid of Gabriel and 3000 angels. His troops were yielding; the prophet mounted his horse, cast a handful of sand into the air, crying, "Let their faces be covered with confusion." The Koreish were panic-struck, and fled; 70 were slain, an equal number taken prisoners. A second battle was fought at Mount Ohud, near Mecca. The Koreish were 3000 strong, the followers of the prophet numbered but 950; and, notwithstanding his military skill and valour, he was forced to abandon the field, and the bodies of 70 of the saints. Next year 10,000 men sat down, in vain, before the walls of Medina; tempests and dissension forced them to retire without fame, and the Koreish lost their hopes of overcoming the exile.

A. D. 623. 625.

The Jews formed several tribes in Arabia. Mohammed at first sought to gain them to his faith; but, finding them inflexible, he unsheathed the sword against them. Every where their resistance was overcome, and their treasures divided among the victorious Mussulmans. The conquest of Mecca was the object next the prophet's heart: he advanced against it; but awed by the martial appearance of the Koreish, he negotiated and concluded a truce for ten years, stipulating a permission to enter the city the following year to perform his devotions. In the pilgrimage made in consequence by him and his followers, Khaled and Amroo, the bravest warriors of

the Koreish embraced the faith of Islam. The Koreish were soon accused of breach of truce; 10,000 Moslems marched against the holy city: resistance was not to be
A. D. attempted; and Aboo Sofian in person presented the
629. keys to Mohammed, and confessed him to be the prophet of the one true God.

The last great effort in the sinking cause of the idols was made in the valley of Honain, in the war called that of the *Idols*. A confederacy was formed, at the head of which stood the people of Tayef, a strong fortress, sixty miles south-east of Mecca: 4000 of the confederates occupied the valley of Honain; 12,000 Moslems advanced with rash confidence, and were speedily thrown into confusion: the prophet was surrounded, and only saved by the devotedness of ten of his disciples; his own voice, and that of his uncle Abbas, restored the battle. The idolaters were finally routed; Tayef taken, and their temples destroyed. The whole of Arabia now acknowledged that "there was but one God, and that Mohammed was his prophet;" and a train of 114,000 True Believers attended his last pilgrimage to the Caabah.

When the Moslem ambassador waited on Heraclius to invite him to the profession of Islam, a degree of amity ensued between the emperor and the prophet. The murder of a Moslem envoy in the empire gave the Arabs the wished-for pretext for invading the country east of the Jordah. The command of 3000 men was intrusted to Zeid, and in case of his death to Jaaffer, and then to Abdallah. In the battle of Muta the three leaders fell gallantly fighting. Khaled restored the battle, and repulsed the Christians. At the head of 10,000 horse, and 20,000 foot, the prophet advanced towards Syria, in the hottest season of the year. Their sufferings were intolerable; and when they reached the fountain of Tabook, midway between Mecca and Damascus, he declared himself satisfied of the peaceful intentions of the emperor; perhaps he dreaded the number and valour of the Roman troops.

630. In the 63d year of his age, Mohammed, after behold-

ing his religion spread over the Arabian peninsula, felt the approach of death: he comforted and instructed his friends and the people, manumitted his slaves, gave orders about his funeral, appointed Aboo Beker to pronounce public prayer in his place, and then calmly expired. The disconsolate Moslems would not believe him dead till their clamour was silenced by the scimitar of Omar and the arguments of Aboo Beker. A. D. 632.

The first Khalifs.

On the death of the prophet, it might have been expected that Ali, his cousin and earliest disciple, and who was married to his daughter Fatema, would have been appointed Khalif, *i. e.* successor; but Ayesha, the favourite wife of Mohammed, was his mortal enemy. Discord was on the point of breaking out, when Omar 632. proposed the election of the venerable Aboo Beker: he was accepted, and during two years governed with justice and impartiality. In his reign the indefatigable Khaled continued his conquests in Syria, and from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean the khalif was obeyed.

The sceptre was bequeathed by the khalif to Omar, 634. one of the oldest of the companions of the prophet. In the twelfth year of his reign, Omar perished by the dagger of an assassin. Ali still forbore putting forward his claims; and six electors, of whom he himself was one, chose Othman, the secretary of the prophet. 644.

Othman was unequal to his high situation: old age had enfeebled his mental powers. The subjects became discontented. A large army assembled before Medina; the khalif was forced to surrender, and he fell with the Koran in his lap. The brother of Ayesha headed the assassins. The public choice now fell on Ali. 655.

Ali in old age displayed all the daring courage of his youth. Two powerful chiefs, Telha and Zobeir, erected the standard of revolt in Irak: they were joined by Ali's implacable enemy, Ayesha, and, mounted on her camel, she appeared in the thickest of the battle, encou-

raging the rebels, but in vain; they were slain, and she was taken. The khalif reproached her, and then dismissed her to pass the remainder of her days at the tomb of the prophet. A more formidable enemy now appeared in Moawiyah, son of Aboo Sofian, and governor of Syria, who assumed the title of khalif, and gave himself out as the avenger of Othman, whose bloody shirt he exposed in the mosch of Damascus. The cause of Moawiyah was embraced by Amroo, the conqueror of Egypt. Ali took the field with an inferior force, and during 110 days a war was waged on the plain of Siffin, on the western bank of the Euphrates, to the advantage of Ali, till the superstition and disobedience of his troops forced him to yield to a treaty. Ali did not long survive. Three fanatics met in the temple of Mecca, and agreed to murder Ali, Moawiyah, and Amroo, as the only means of restoring peace to the church and state. Each chose his victim: he alone succeeded who selected Ali, who fell by his dagger in the mosch of Cufa, in the 63d year of his age. Moawiyah was now acknowledged khalif, and the seat of empire transferred to Damascus.

A. D. 660.

The virtues of the first four khalifs are acknowledged; but, by a large portion of the Mohammedan church, the first three are looked on and cursed as usurpers. Those that hold this opinion are denominated *Sheeahs*, and it is an article of their faith, that Ali is the vicar of God. This is the established religion of Persia. The *Soonees*, or orthodox, to whom the Turks belong, regard all the four as rightful successors of the prophet, but they assign the lowest degree of sanctity to Ali. It is almost needless to add, that the hatred of the rival sects is most cordial and intense.

Conquest of Syria.

During the reign of the first four khalifs, Syria, Persia, and Egypt were conquered by their lieutenants, and the law of the Prophet embraced, or tribute yielded, by the inhabitants.

On the accession of Aboo Beker, he despatched an army, under the command of Aboo Obeidah, for the conquest of Syria. The first object of their attack was the fortress of Bozra, eastward of the Jordan. The false confidence of the people, and the treachery of the governor, delivered it into the hands of the Moslems. Damascus was distant but four days' journey; its siege was undertaken; but intelligence of the approach of a large army to its relief induced the Mohammedan chiefs to suspend their operations till they had encountered the imperial forces. All the forces scattered on the borders of Syria and Palestine were summoned to the standard of the faith.

On the plains of Aiznadin, the troops of the khalif, 633.
45,000 in number, and guided by Khaled, Amroo, and their most distinguished leaders, encountered the Christian host of 70,000 men. Liberal offers of peace were made by the Greeks, and disdained by the Arabs. The conflict began; it continued throughout the day with doubtful success; in the evening, Khaled made a furious onset, and victory declared for the Moslem arms: the field was covered with the bodies of the Christians, and inestimable booty rewarded the victors. Damascus was again invested. Animated by their brave governor, Thomas, a nobleman allied to the emperor, the garrison and citizens offered a gallant resistance; till after experiencing the inutility of all the efforts of valour, they capitulated to the mild and upright Aboo Obeidah, on condition of those who chose being permitted to depart with as much as they could carry of their effects, and those who stayed being allowed to retain their lands, 634.
houses, and seven churches tributary to the khalifs. A large number departed. Urged by the importunity of a Syrian renegade, whose mistress was among the fugitives, Khaled pursued them with 4000 horse. The ill-fated Damascenes were overtaken; not a soul, save one, escaped the Arabian scimitar; but the traitor to his country and his faith perished by the dagger of his indignant mistress at the moment he attempted to embrace her.

A. D.

635. The following year saw Heliopolis, or Baalbek, the capital of the rich valley of Hollow Syria, and Hems, or Emessa, the chief city of the plain, in the hands of the khalif's lieutenants.

636. The banks of the Yermuk, a stream that flows from Mount Hermon into the lake of Tiberias, was the scene of the last great battle for the possession of Syria. Eighty thousand of the imperial troops stood with 60,000 Christian Arabs of the tribe of Gassan against the Moslems. It was the most doubtful day the faithful had yet seen; but the *Sword of God* (so Khaled was styled) was victorious. Countless was the loss of the Christians: 4030 Moslems lay on the plain.

After a month spent at Damascus, to recruit their vigour and divide the spoil, the impatient host marched to invest the sacred walls of Jerusalem. The siege lasted four months; a surrender was then offered to the khalif in person. The sanctity of the place moved Omar, and he undertook the journey from Medina through the waste. The holy city received the khalif, and on the site of the temple he laid the foundation of the mosch named from

637. himself.

638. Aleppo and Antioch, the only remaining places of strength, submitted to the victorious arms of the Arabs, and all Syria obeyed the successor of the prophet. Heraclius abandoned that portion of his dominions in despair, and the ravages of the Moslems extended to within view of Constantinople.

Conquest of Persia.

632. In the first year of Aboo Beker, Khaled appeared on the banks of the Euphrates. In the same year with

638. the conquest of Syria, 30,000 Moslems engaged the numerous host of Yezdejird III., the youthful grandson of Khosroo, on the plains of Cadesia, on the edge of the desert, 61 leagues from the future Bagdad. The troops of Persia were commanded by Roostem, a namesake of the national hero; the Direfsh-e-Kawanee, or Apron of Kawah, the banner of the empire, blazed in their front.

On the fourth day of the battle the flying Roostem was overtaken and slain, and the jewel-set Direfsh-e-Kawanee was captured. All Irak, the ancient Assyria, submitted, and the city of Bassora was founded, to command the trade of Persia.

In the third month after the battle, the Tigris was passed; Madain or Ctesiphon, the capital of the empire, was taken by assault, and immense plunder enriched the faithful. Yezdejird had fled to Holwan, at the foot of the hills of Media. The loss of the fortress of Jaloola made him fly to the mountains of Farsistan, the country of Cyrus. At Nahavend, to the south of Hamadan, 150,000 Persians made a final effort for their country and their religion. The appellation, *Victory of victories*, bestowed on this battle by the Arabs, proves the fatal result. All the cities and towns of Persia submitted to the conquerors. Their banners approached the Caspian and the Oxus. Yezdejird had fled to Chorassan, and taken refuge in Merv. The governor of that city invited the khakan of the Turks to take possession of his person. The Turks entered, and made themselves masters of Merv. Yezdejird escaped during the confusion, and sought shelter with a miller, who murdered him while he slept, for the sake of his rich arms and robes. A. D. 651.

Conquest of Egypt.

The year in which the conquest of Syria was completed that of Egypt commenced. Amroo marched from Gaza with 4000 Arabs. After a siege of thirty days, Pelusium surrendered. Memphis held out seven months against the Saracen army, now double its original number. It was taken by assault. The city of Cairo rose on the spot where the Arabs had encamped. 638.

Religious enmity facilitated the conquest of the country. The Egyptians hated the creed and the government of the emperors. A treaty was entered into between Amroo and Mokawkas, a noble Egyptian. It was agreed that, for a moderate tribute, the Christian

inhabitants should be left in the full enjoyment of their religion and their property. The whole nation fell off from the Greeks, and every assistance was rendered to the Arabs. The city of Alexandria remained to be conquered; an achievement, perhaps, surpassing in difficulty any the Arabs had yet attempted. Its inhabitants were numerous and resolute, its supplies abundant, the sea was open, affording a facility of relief. The Saracens strained every nerve; the tribes of the desert crowded to the standard of Amroo; the Egyptians laboured strenuously, and, at the end of fourteen months
A. D. 639. and the loss of 23,000 men, the Moslems saw themselves masters of the capital of Egypt. The khalif rigidly forbade pillage; a tribute was imposed on the inhabitants. The truth of the destruction of the library of the Ptolemies has been questioned. The loss of Alexandria hastened the death of Heraclius. In the space of four years two fruitless attempts were made to recover it.

Invasion of Africa.

647. Under the reign of Othman the conquest of Africa was attempted by the Moslem arms, led by Abdallah, the foster-brother of the khalif. At the head of 40,000 men, he advanced from Egypt into the west. After a toilsome march they appeared before the walls of Tripoli; but the approach of the prefect Gregory, with a numerous army, called the Saracens from the siege to the field. For several days the two armies encountered from morning till noon. The daughter of Gregory fought by his side, and her hand and 100,000 pieces of gold were offered to the warrior who should bring the head of the Arab general. Zobeir, who afterwards fell in rebellion against the khalif Ali, joined his brethren: his stratagem defeated the army of Gregory, who fell by his hand. The town of Sufatula, 150 miles south of Carthage, was taken. The country on all sides implored the clemency of the conqueror; but his losses and the appearance of an epidemic disease pre-

vented a settlement being formed, and after a campaign of fifteen months, the Saracen army re-entered Egypt with their captives and their booty.

From the battle of Beder till the death of Ali a period elapsed of 37 years, during which the arms of the Arabs had penetrated from the heart of Arabia to the banks of the Oxus and Indus, and the shores of the Euxine and Caspian. The Nile rolled within their dominions; Africa, Cyprus, and Rhodes had been visited and plundered by their victorious warriors.

The Ommiyades.

When Ali was murdered, his rights passed to his son Hassan, who was induced by Moawiyah to abandon his claim and retire to Medina. The khalifat was now established in the house of Ommiyah, in which it continued during seventy years through fourteen khalifs, and extended its sway from the Pyrenees and the Atlantic to the borders of Turkestan and India, the largest empire and most powerful monarchs of the globe. This dynasty derived its appellation from Ommiyah, one of the chiefs of the Koreish: Aboo Sofian, his descendant, long resisted the prophet; his son, Moawiyah, became his secretary, and Omar made him governor of Syria. The first Ommiyah Khalif was a man of courage, though he declined the proposal of the chivalrous Ali, who offered to decide their dispute by single combat: his son Yezid, and his successors, were princes of little merit, and never partook in the toils and glories of war.

Conquest of Africa.

Oppressed by the exactions of the court of Byzantium, the people of Africa invoked the aid of the Arabs. The lieutenant of Moawiyah entered Africa, defeated an imperial army of 30,000 men, and returned laden with booty. Akbeh, a valiant warrior, marched from Damascus with 10,000 Arabs; his army was joined by numerous African auxiliaries; victory led

him to the shores of the Atlantic, and he founded the city of Cairoan, fifty miles south of Tunis, to secure his conquests. But Akbeh fell in battle against the revolted Greeks and Africans. His successor, Zuheir, shared his fate. The final conquest was reserved for Hassan, governor of Egypt, who took and destroyed Carthage, and subdued the Berbers of the desert. Musa, his succ-
A. D. cessor, broke their power effectually when they rose in
709. rebellion.

Conquest of Spain.

The Gothic monarchy in Spain was now utterly enfeebled. Having no foreign foes, military discipline had been neglected, and luxury had quite altered the descendants of Theoderic. Roderic, a nobleman, had, on the death of Witiza, ascended his throne, to the exclusion of the two sons of that monarch: their uncle, Oppas, was archbishop of Toledo; Count Julian, a partisan, was governor of Ceuta and Andalusia; the malcontents were numerous. It is added, that Roderic had given farther offence by violating Cava, the daughter of Julian.

Julian had repulsed Musa from the walls of Ceuta, but soon after he entered into correspondence with the Arab chief, and offered to give him entrance into Spain. The permission of the khalif, Walid, was obtained.
710. A small body of troops, commanded by Tarif, passed over and advanced to the castle of Julian, at Algeziras, where they were hospitably entertained and joined by
711. the Christians. The following spring 5000 Moslems, under the command of Tarik, passed over and landed at Gibraltar, named from their chief. They defeated the Gothic commander sent against them. Roderic collected an army of near 100,000 men; the Saracens were augmented to 12,000, besides their Spanish and African auxiliaries. On the banks of the Guadaleta, near the town of Xeres, the battle was fought which decided the fate of the Gothic monarchy. Three days were occupied in bloody but undecisive skirmishing, the fourth was the day of general conflict. The Saracens were

yielding to multitudes; Tarik still animated his men, when Oppas and the sons of Witiza, who occupied the most important post in the army of the Goths, passed over to the enemy, and turned the fortune of the field. The flight and pursuit lasted three days. Roderic fled on the back of his swiftest horse, but escaped the battle only to be drowned in the waters of the Guadalquivir.

The whole country submitted without resistance to the victorious Tarik. Toledo, the Gothic capital, opened her gates, stipulating only for freedom of religion and internal government. Cordova was taken by assault; Malaga, Elvira, and Erija received Moslem garrisons. Envious of the fame of Tarik, Musa hastened his passage to Spain at the head of 18,000 men: the cities of Seville and Merida resisted; and the defence of the latter was obstinate, and only subdued by famine. The Tarragonese province was speedily overrun by Tarik, and the Goths were pursued into their Gallic province of Septimania. A valiant remnant of the Goths maintained their independence in the rugged mountains of Asturia. All the rest of Spain obeyed the successors of the prophet. A. D. 714.

At the same time that the khalif Walid received intelligence of the conquest of Spain, messengers from the East arrived to announce the first successes of the Mussulman arms in India.

Invasion of France by the Arabs.

The Arabs of the East had twice besieged Constantinople: each time they had retired with dishonour. The commander of the faithful had even paid tribute to the Eastern emperor. 668. & 716.

Five years after the raising of the second siege of the Eastern capital, the kingdom of the Franks was menaced with destruction by the khalif's viceroy in Spain. Eudes, duke of Aquitaine, was a prince nearly independent of the feeble successors of Clovis. The Moslems claimed Septimania from him as a part of the Spanish monarchy. 721.

An army passed the Pyrenees, but was defeated, and its leader slain, before the walls of Toulouse. A second appeared, and reduced all France from the Garonne to the Rhone. The valiant Abd-er-rahman resolved on the conquest of the whole of the dominions of the Merovingians: he laid siege to Arles, and defeated an army sent to its relief: to the north of Bordeaux he encountered and slaughtered the army of Eudes. The Moslems appeared before Tours and Sens in Burgundy: their troops were beheld from the walls of Lyons and Besançon. Fortunately there was a hero in France. Charles the son of Pepin was mayor of the palace in Austrasia: he collected an army of French and Germans, and encountered the Arabs on the plains between Tours
A. D. and Poitiers. On the seventh day of the conflict vic-
732. tory declared for the Europeans: Abd-er-rahman fell; the Saracens retired, fell into dissension, and evacuated the country, to which they never returned. More than 300,000 Moslems are said, with gross exaggeration, to have fallen; and the epithet of *Martel*, the *Hammer*, bestowed on Charles, proves the vigour of his arm in the conflict.

France.

The degenerate descendants of Clovis had during this period sunk into utter insignificance. All power was in the hands of the mayors of the palace: these officers headed the armies, and disposed of lands and offices. The kings, retired in their palace, enjoyed the luxury of a well-furnished table, and on the May meetings (Champs de Mai) of the nation, they were drawn in their chariot by four oxen to receive the homage of their people, and follow the directions of the mayor. The dignity of mayor was transmitted from father to son. Pepin Heristal, on his death, in 714, was succeeded in his dignity by his son Charles, the hero of the field of Tours, and the founder of a line of princes.

The Lombards.

Authar, king of the Lombards, governed his people with wisdom and equity, and fought with success against the imperial exarchs and the Franks. His widow, Theudelinda, married Agilulf, duke of Turin: the nation received him as king. Pope Gregory I. mediated peace between him and the exarchs; and he also cultivated peace with the Franks and Avars. His queen encouraged the beneficent sway of the Christian religion, and gradually brought the Lombards to relish the delights of peace. Agilulf was succeeded by his son Adelwald; but losing his senses by drink, the sceptre was transferred to his brother-in-law Ariwald. On the death of Ariwald, Rother, another son-in-law of Agilulf, was elected. This prince first collected the laws of the Lombards into a code. His son and successor, Rodwald, was murdered by a man whose wife he had abused; and the nation elected Aribert, nephew of queen Theudelinda. Aribert sought to leave his sons Perthari and Godibert joint sovereigns: they fell into discord. Godibert was slain by Grimwald, duke of Benevento, one of his own partisans: Perthari, on hearing this, fled to Hungary. Grimwald reigned with justice, and defeated the Franks who came in aid of Perthari: this latter succeeded him, and reigned with great mildness and equity. After various transitions, the crown was placed on the head of Ansbrand, a Bavarian, a man advanced in years and wisdom. His son, Lütprand, was the most powerful and one of the ablest of the Lombard monarchs. Great friendship prevailed between him and Charles Martel, who sent his son to have his hair first cut by the Lombard king, who thereby, according to the ideas of the Franks, became a second father to the young Pepin.

A. D.
584.
590.
599.
616.
625.
636.
652.
661.
671.
710.

Constantinople.

Heraclius was succeeded by his son Constantine II., with whom the queen Martina had her own son Hera-

641.

clionas associated. Constantine died after a short reign of 103 days. Heraclionas and his mother were banished, and Constans II., the son of Constantine, a boy of twelve years, placed on the throne. He caused his brother Theodosius to be murdered; passed over to Italy; waged an unsuccessful war against the Lombards;
A. D. plundered Rome and several other cities of Italy and
662. Sicily of the works of art, which he collected in Syracuse, and embarked for Constantinople; but the ships which carried them were taken by the Saracens and brought to Alexandria. Their precious freight was dispersed and lost. Constans was murdered, after a six
668. years' residence in Sicily.

In the reign of his son Constantine IV. Africa was
685. lost, and Constantinople besieged. Justinian II. succeeded, was expelled, returned, and exercised the most savage cruelty. Philippicus Bardanes avenged humanity on the tyrant; but was himself dethroned and
711. blinded. Anastatius followed. The army raised a native
713. of Adramyttium to the throne, because his name was Theodosius: he laid down his dignity as soon as he
717. safely could; and Leo, an Isaurian, a brave man, was placed on the throne of Constantinople, which he gallantly defended two years against the arms of the khalifs.

Germany.

Germany received during this period the first beams of the beneficent light of the Gospel. An Englishman, named Winfred, went through the country preaching the faith, and drawing the people from the worship of idols: he collected them into towns, where afterwards cities rose. The pope Gregory II. beholding his zeal, bestowed on Winfred, now called Boniface, the dignity of a bishop, and the office of legate. Mentz became the see of this first bishop, whence, as the sword of Charles Martel smote the rude tribes of Germany, the bishops invited them to receive the religion of Rome, and the more polished manners of the Franks.

The sword and the Gospel went together in Germany, as the sword and the Koran in Asia. Monasteries, those asylums of peace, amidst the storms of the middle ages, were founded in Germany by the labours of Boniface.

England.

In the pontificate of Gregory the Great, the Gospel was preached to the Anglo-Saxons by Augustine and his companions sent by the zealous pontiff from Rome with that design. Their first efforts were in the kingdom of Kent, whose king, Ethelbert, was married to a Christian princess of the house of Meroveus. The king and his nobles embraced the new faith, which was gradually extended to the other kingdoms into which the Anglo-Saxons had partitioned the island. It is a remarkable feature in the character and piety of the Anglo-Saxon princes, that continually the world was edified by the sight of one of them quitting his throne, and all the pomps and cares of royalty, and retiring to pass the evening of his days in the shade of a monastery, or in the holy city of the supreme pontiff. A. D. 596.

CHAP. III.

THE TIMES OF CHARLEMAGNE AND HAROON-ER-RASHEED.

Italy.

Among other practices of the ancient heathenism which had gradually crept into the church of Christ, was that of the worship of images. When Leo, the Isaurian, mounted the imperial throne, either guided by reason, or by early prejudices, he warmly espoused the side of the Iconoclasts, *image-breakers*, who opposed their worship, and a council assembled at Constantinople pronounced it to be heretical. When the imperial edict arrived in Italy, obedience to it was refused; and, at the exhorta-

A. D.
728. ation of Pope Gregory II., all Italy, save Naples, rose in arms to oppose the profane emperor: his troops were massacred when they landed in that country; and the pope, in the plenitude of his power, was about to direct the election of a new emperor.

The authority of the Byzantine emperors in Rome was little more than nominal: the city had nearly returned to its republican form; the bishop was considered as the first magistrate; and thus the temporal power of the popes was founded on the best of grounds, the free choice of the people. A series of able, enterprising, and dignified pontiffs, the three Gregories, Zachary, Stephen, Paul, firmly established this sacerdotal dominion.

Lütprand, king of the Lombards, took Ravenna, and menaced Rome. This prince aimed at uniting all Italy under one sovereign; but the policy of the popes, and the resistance of the princes and states, prevented the execution of his designs. The iron crown passed,
744. after the death of his nephew and successor Hildebrand, to Rachis duke of Friuli, who shortly after, with his wife and daughter, abandoned the cares of royalty, and retired
749. to the monastery of Monte Casino. The choice of the nation fell on his brother Astolfo (Aistulf). This prince made the final conquest of the exarchate of Ravenna, and summoned Rome to acknowledge his sovereignty. The pride of Rome and the pope disdained submission; but their strength was unequal to the conflict: they turned their eyes for aid beyond the Alps; and Stephen III. in person crossed those mountains to implore the compassion of the pious Franks, and of Pepin, the illustrious son of Charles Martel. He implored not in vain: an army, led by Pepin in person, entered Italy, and Astolfo swore to respect the possessions of the church; but hardly was Pepin gone, when the Lombard forgot his vow. Pepin was again called on, and Astolfo was again reduced to
756. submission.

Astolfo was succeeded by Desiderius, duke of Tuscany. Falling into a dispute about their frontiers with

pope Hadrian II., the latter called on his powerful ally, Charlemagne, son of Pepin: the passes of the Alps were betrayed, the vassals fell off, the Lombard king was shut up in Pavia, his capital, his valiant son Adelgis vainly implored, in person, aid at Byzantium. After a siege of two years, treachery gave Pavia to the French, and Lombardy became a part of the empire of the son of Pepin. A grateful pope (Leo) crowned the French monarch emperor of the West. Rome did homage to his power: the duke of Benevento, whose duchy embraced the modern kingdom of Naples, acknowledged himself his vassal; the Venetians, who, since the days of Attila, had dwelt in their isles and lagunes, revered his authority. A. 774. 800.

The Lombards retained their laws and usages; each person and each district of Italy was governed by local or adopted laws. The great cities were governed by dukes, aided by a council of bishops, abbots, counts, knights, and gentlemen. The pope exercised at Rome the power possessed by the dukes in the other cities. He was chosen by the clergy and people, and the choice confirmed by the emperor.

Empire of Charlemagne.

On the death of Charles Martel the kingdom of the Franks was thrown into some confusion. The German provinces armed in favour of his son Grypho, against his brothers Carloman and Pepin. The latter were victorious in the contest, and an end was put to the duchy of Allemannia. Chilperic occupied the seat of Clovis; the power of the monarchy was wielded by Pepin. Pope Zachary pronounced that it was lawful for the title to follow the power; and at Soissons, where, 266 years before the empire of the Franks had been founded by Clovis, his last descendant was formally deposed in an assembly of the nation, and sent to end his days in a convent, and Pepin crowned in his place. The new monarch quickly destroyed his brother Carloman, and humbled the great. His chief exploits were against the Lom- 752.

A. D.
768. bards in defence of the popes. At his death he divided his dominions between his sons Charles and Carloman. The latter lived but three years, and suspicion of having
771. hastened his end fell upon his brother.

Charles, called afterwards Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, early in his reign overturned the kingdom of the Lombards. During thirty years he carried on an obstinate war against the Saxons, on whom he sought to impose his yoke and Christianity. Headed by Wittikind, a second Arminius, the gallant nation resisted with vigour and perseverance. Gottfried, king of Denmark, aided and gave refuge to them; but the Obotrites of Mecklenburg joined the Franks, and Wittikind and his people were at last forced to receive the religion and the law of Charlemagne. Several abandoned their country and took refuge in Denmark, whence their descendants united with the Northmen issued, and avenged the blood of their fathers on the descendants of their oppressors. In Spain, Charles appeared as the ally of the emir of Zaragoza, and established the Spanish March, extending from the Ebro to the Pyrenees. Barcelona was the residence of the French governor. In Germany, he extended the French dominion to the Elbe, and added the kingdom of Bohemia to the Germanic body. A conflict of eight years against the Avars of Pannonia gave him the possession of that country. His empire thus extended from the Ebro to the Elbe, from the ocean to the Vistula, and the Teyss and Save. The duke of Benevento acknowledged his supremacy; the king of England was his friend; the Christian princes of Spain regarded him as a patron. Haroon-er-Rasheed honoured him by gifts as an equal. Master of two-thirds of the Western Roman empire, he was crowned emperor of the Romans by Leo, on the festival of Christmas, A. D. 800, in the sacred temple of St. Peter. His dynasty, called the Carlovingian, from Charles Martel, formed the second in France. After a long and victorious reign he left his empire, which he had widely

extended, and to which he had given a code of laws, to his son Louis the Debonair. A. D. 814.

Feudal System.

As France was the chief seat of this celebrated system, the present period seems not unsuitable for giving a slight view of it.

The Franks, like the Burgundians, Lombards, and others of the barbarous nations, carried their original Germanic ideas with them into the countries they conquered. The land was divided into a number of districts, over each of which was a count to administer justice and collect the revenue in peace, to lead the military contingent in war. Several of these counties were under a duke. These offices were originally precarious, but gradually became hereditary in families, and the foundation of power and independence.

At the conquest, the lands which had been seized were distributed into portions, according to the rank of the occupant. That of the king was considerable, and those of the principal officers proportionably large. These lands were allodial, held in propriety on the sole condition of serving in the defence of the country. The owner of three *mansi* * was obliged to serve in person; where there were three possessors of single mansi, one served, the others contributed to equip him. All served at their own expense, and the period of service was limited.

Of the Romans, or original inhabitants, some retained their lands in propriety; others farmed those of the Franks. They were governed by their own laws. But the Franks stood higher in the eye of the law, and the *Weregild*, or composition for homicide, was always much greater in the case of a Frank than of a Roman.

The demesne lands of the crown were very extensive. They were the private estate of the sovereign, whence

* A *mansus* contained twelve jugera of land. *Ducange.*

he was to support his dignity. Portions of these lands were frequently granted by the kings to favourites, under the name of *benefices*, under the usual condition of military service, which service appears to have differed from that of the allodial proprietors in this, that that of the latter was rather *national*, that of the former rather due to the monarch *personally*. These benefices were granted for life, and then returned to the crown; but the son of the beneficiary was generally continued in his benefice, and under the feeble Merovingians the benefices mostly became hereditary. The holders of hereditary benefices now began to bestow portions of their benefices on others to hold of themselves, under a similar tenure of military service. This practice, called *sub-infeudation*, spread greatly after the death of Charlemagne, and we have here the germ of the whole feudal system, with its burdens and obligations.

The dukes, counts, and marquisses, or margraves, who guarded the marches or frontiers, gradually encroached on the royal dignity. They made their dignities hereditary; they sought to appropriate to themselves the crown lands within their jurisdiction; they oppressed the free proprietors. These last were hitherto the strength of the state, and shared in the legislature, owing no duty but military service against the public enemy. They now were exposed without protection to the tyranny of the count or duke. The protection of a powerful man was the only security; the allodial lands were surrendered and received back as feudal; their owner acknowledged himself the vassal of a suzerain, and took on him the feudal obligations.

These obligations were mutual, as those between patrons and clients at Rome: the vassal was bound to follow his lord to war during a limited period, usually forty days, and that even against a superior lord or the king; he was not to divulge his lord's counsel, to injure his person or fortune, or the honour of his family. In battle he was to give his horse to his lord if dismounted, to give himself as an hostage for him if taken; he was

to attend his lord's courts as a witness or a judge. He was to pay a fine on receiving, and another on alienating his fief; and he was to pay an *aid* to redeem his lord from captivity, to enable his lord to pay his own fine to his superior lord, on taking possession of his fief, &c. The aids varied in number in different places, and these obligations mostly grew up gradually, as the power of the lords enabled them to encroach. On the part of the lord, the principal obligation was that of protection.

The church, rich in lands, although hallowed by superstition, did not escape the universal outrage and spoliation. Though the clergy were often martial, they could not meet the feudal lords on equal terms. The rich abbeys, therefore, usually adopted the practice of choosing an *advocate* in the person of some neighbouring lord, on whom they bestowed sundry privileges, and generally some good fief; and who was, in consequence, bound to defend the interest of his clients in courts of law, and in the field of battle.

The feudal system did not arrive at full maturity during the time of the Carlovingians, and we have here somewhat anticipated. It was confined to the dominions of Charlemagne, and to countries which, like England, borrowed it from them.

England.

Nothing remarkable happened in England during this period, except the union of all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, under the sceptre of Egbert, king of Wessex. A. D. 827. The Vikingar, or pirates of Scandinavia, now began to send forth those large fleets which were soon to spread devastation on the coasts of Europe, and Charlemagne shed tears at the sight of the first of them that appeared in the Mediterranean.

Constantinople.

Superstition, ignorance, and feebleness increased in

A. D.
742. the eastern empire. Leo the Isaurian was succeeded by his son Constantine V., who carried on the war against the images with apparent rather than real success. The short reign of Leo IV. was terminated by poison, as was supposed; and his widow, Irene, who governed under the name of her infant son Constantine VI., gave
780. a final triumph to the monks by solemnly establishing the worship of the images. This monk-lauded empress stained her hands with the blood of her own son, and then contrived to reign alone, the first sole regnant em-
802. press; but she lost her throne to the daring courage of Nicephorus. This emperor set himself resolutely but vainly against the image worship; the evil had come to too great a head. His son and son-in-law possessed the throne but three years. A soldier, Leo Bardanes,
813. next ascended the throne; but court intrigues and monkish arts impeded his judicious policy. His successor, Michael of Amorium, was feeble and unfortunate.

The external enemies of the empire during this period were the Arabs under the Abbasside khalifs, who ravaged Lesser Asia, and the Bulgarians, a Slavonian tribe, who advanced southwards towards the Adriatic, where they subsequently occupied Dalmatia. They were now on the southern bank of the Danube, in the country named from them. The emperor Nicephorus lost his
810. life in a battle with this nation.

The Abbasside Khalifs.

The house of Ommiyah failed in gaining the affections of its subjects. The family of the prophet was esteemed best entitled to his throne and pulpit. Of the line of Hashem, the Fatemites, or descendants of Ali by Fatema, the daughter of the prophet, had the prior
716. claim; but they were wanting in courage or talent. The Abbassides, the family of the prophet's uncle, Abbas, were numerous, prudent, and united: their partisans were chiefly in Persia, where Aboo Moslem, their chief support, first gave them dominion by the conquest of

Khorassan. Persia was from east to west a perpetual scene of conflict between the rival parties of the *white* and the *black*, as they were styled, from the colours of their ensigns. The Ommiyades unfurled the *white* banner of the prophet: their rivals displayed the opposite hue. Ibrahim, the chief of the house of Abbas, was waylaid on his pilgrimage to Mecca by the troops of Damascus, and he expired in the dungeons of Haran: his brothers, Saffah and Almansor, escaped to Cufa. Saffah was there proclaimed khalif. Mervan II., the Ommiyade khalif, collected a large army, and met the host of Saffah on the banks of the Zab. The Abbasside troops were least in number; but fortune favoured them. Mervan fled to Egypt; and in another engagement at Busir, on the banks of the Nile, he lost both life and empire. A. D. 750.

The unfortunate race of Ommiyah was now sought out and slaughtered. One youth alone, Abd-er-rahman, escaped the perquisitions of the Abbassides, and he fled to Africa. He was invited over to Spain by the friends and servants of his house. The governor, Yussuf, was forced to yield to his arms; and from the city of Cordova the sceptre of the Ommiyades ruled during 283 years over the eight provinces into which Spain was divided. 755.

After a short reign, Saffah was succeeded by his brother Almansor. The royal residence had at first been Medina: Ali transferred it to Cufa; and Moawiyah to Damascus. Persia was the chief seat of the Abbasside power; and Almansor laid, on the eastern bank of the Tigris, the foundations of Bagdad, the royal seat of his posterity for five hundred years. The arms of Almansor were successful against the nomades of Toorkistan; but his expedition against the Ommiyade khalif of Spain encountered only disgrace and defeat. 762.

The Greeks had taken advantage of the civil dissensions of the Moslems to recover a portion of their dominions. Mohadi, the successor of Almansor, retaliated during the reign of Irene and her son. Haroon, his second son, at the head of *95,000* Persians and Arabs, invaded Lesser Asia; and from the heights of

Scutari, within view of the imperial city, dictated the terms of an ignominious peace.

A. D. 781. Five years after this war, Haroon-er-Rasheed, or, the *Just*, ascended the throne of his father and his elder brother. During a reign of twenty-three years, this active prince eight times invaded the Grecian territories. In vain the emperor Nicephorus sent haughty defiances and denials of tribute; in vain he assembled large armies: his troops fled in dismay before the disciplined bands of the commander of the faithful; and the Byzantine gold was annually poured into the treasury of Bagdad. The memory of Haroon is renowned alike in both the East and West, as the hero of history and tale; but it is indelibly stained by the slaughter of the princely and guiltless Barmecides.

804. On his death his throne was disputed by his three sons; and, in the civil conflict, Al-Mamoon, the son of the filthy slave of the kitchen, triumphed over the issue of the haughty Zobeide. The memory of this prince is dear to literature and science, of which he was the zealous patron; and his peaceful acquisitions eclipse the martial deeds of his father.

Under the first khalifs and the house of Ommiyah no literature was attended to but the Koran and their native poetry. Almansor began to encourage the acquisition of foreign literature: it was also patronised by Haroon; but Al-Mamoon far outstripped all his predecessors in its cultivation. At his command his agents and his ambassadors collected the best works of Grecian science, and his translators gave them an Arabic dress. The astronomy of Ptolemy, the medicine of Galen, the metaphysics of Aristotle, were read and commented on in the language of Arabia. The Ommiyade khalifs of Cordova, the Fatemites of Africa, vied with those of Bagdad in the collecting of books and the encouragement of science; and from the schools established by them proceeded chiefly the medicine, physics, and metaphysics of Europe during the middle ages. But the poets, the orators, and the historians of the Grecian republics never learned to speak the language of Mohammedan despotism.

A. D.

In the reign of Al-Mamoon Crete and Sicily were 823.
conquered by the Moslems. A piratical fleet of ten or twenty galleys from Andalusia entered Alexandria at the solicitation of a rebellious faction. They spared neither friends nor foes; they pillaged the city, and it required the forces and the presence of the khalif Al-Mamoon to expel them. They ravaged the islands to the Hellespont. The fertility and riches of Crete attracted them: they invaded it with forty galleys. They entered and pillaged the country; but as they returned to their vessels, they found them in flames by the orders of their chief, who exhorted them to seize and keep the fertile land. They obeyed from necessity, the island submitted, and for 138 years their depredations harassed the eastern empire.

A youth had stolen a nun from a cloister in Sicily. 827.
He was sentenced to the loss of his tongue. He fled to Africa, and exhorted the Arabs to invade his country. They landed, in number 700 horse, and 10,000 foot. They were repulsed before the walls of Syracuse, and reduced to great straits, when they received a reinforcement from Spain. The western part of the island was quickly reduced, and Palermo became the Saracenic capital. Fifty years elapsed before Syracuse submitted, 878.
after a siege worthy of her old renown. The Grecian language and religion were eradicated throughout the island. From the ports of Sicily and Africa the Mohammedan fleets issued to ravage and pillage the cities and provinces of Italy.

While the Arabs were engaged in the conquest of 846.
Sicily, one of their fleets entered the Tiber, and the Moslems plundered the temples of Saint Peter and Saint Paul. Fortunately for the Romans, their pope died, and Leo IV., a man of the old Roman spirit, was chosen to succeed. By his care the city was fortified, and an alliance formed with Gaieta, Naples, and Salerno. Soon after, a large fleet of Saracens came from Africa, and 849.
cast anchor before the Tiber. The allies of the pope soon appeared; the engagement commenced, and a

tempest finally decided it in favour of the Christians. The Saracen fleet was utterly destroyed, and those who escaped to shore were slaughtered or reduced to slavery.

CHAP. IV.

DISSOLUTION OF THE GREAT EMPIRES OF THE EAST AND WEST.

Empire of Charlemagne.

A. D. 814. CHARLEMAGNE was succeeded in his dominions by his son Louis, named the Pious, or Le Debonaire. His eldest son, Pepin, had died before him, leaving an illegitimate son, Bernard, who retained the kingdom of Italy,
817. which his father had held. Rebelling against his uncle, he was sentenced to the loss of his eyes, which caused his death. Louis associated his eldest son, Lothaire, in the empire, and conferred Bavaria and Aquitaine on his two other sons; but having had a son, Charles, by his second wife, Judith of Bavaria, he was naturally anxious to provide for him also. This could only be done at the expense of Lothaire and his brothers. They rose in rebellion, and deposed their father: their discord
840. caused his restoration. At his death, all his sons were in arms against each other. A bloody battle at Fontenoy, in Auxerre, forced them to come to an agreement, and the empire was, by the treaty of Verdun, divided among them.

343. In this partition, Lothaire got Italy, Provence, and the country running along the Rhine, afterwards called Lorraine. Louis had all the German dominions eastward of the territories of Lothaire; and Charles, surnamed the Bald, had France. Pepin, their nephew, had Aquitaine, which his father had held: of this he was afterwards robbed by his uncle Charles,

855. Lothaire, filled with remorse for his rebellions against

his father, retired to a convent. His three sons took arms to divide their inheritance. By the treaty of Orbe (in the Vaudois), Louis got the crown of the Cæsars, Italy, and Rhætia; Lothaire II., Burgundy, Alsatia, and Lorraine; Charles had Provence. A. D. 859.

Lothaire II. dying the victim of the see of Rome, without legitimate issue, his two uncles made a treaty of partition of his dominions, which was finally decided in favour of the king of Germany. Lothaire II. had already divided with his brother, Louis II., the dominions of Charles of Provence, who had died without heirs; and on the death of Louis II. Rhætia came to the king of Germany; but his younger brother, the king of France, contrived to make himself master of Italy and the imperial crown. 868. 879. 863. 875.

The two brothers soon died. Louis the Stammerer succeeded his father, Charles the Bald; but followed him to the tomb within half a year after his accession. The legitimacy of his children was doubted; and in a council of Burgundian bishops, held at Geneva, the sovereignty of that country was offered to Boson, who was married to Imogene, daughter of Louis II., and he was crowned king of Burgundy by the archbishop at Lyons. 876. 879.

Charles the Fat, the son of Louis of Germany, united Italy to his German dominions; and on the death of the elder sons of Louis the Stammerer, and the minority of their brother Charles the Simple, he was made king of France, and Boson received his kingdom of him as a fief. The empire was now once more under one head; but Charles becoming deranged, he was deposed, and the unity of the empire of the Franks dissolved for ever. 880. 888.

The German dominions of Charles were taken possession of by Arnulf, the illegitimate son of his brother Carloman, a prince deeply imbued with the best spirit of the Carlovingians; but he died, leaving a son of only seven years. Eudes, count of Paris, which he had gallantly defended against the Normans, was chosen king of France; but on his death it came to the rightful but

incapable heir, Charles the Simple. After the death of Boson, two kings reigned in Burgundy; his son Louis, and Rodolph, son of the powerful Count Conrad, and that kingdom was divided, never to be reunited. In Italy, Widon, duke of Spoleto, and Berenger, duke of Friuli, contended with each other for the restoration of the kingdom of the Lombards, and discord and turbulence agitated the whole country.

Such was the internal state of the empire of Charlemagne at the close of the ninth century: externally it was harassed by the Arabs, the Hungarians, and the Northmen.

The Hungarians.

Beyond the Ural mountains a tribe of Turks, it is thought, had intermixed with the Finns, the original race of Northern Asia and Europe. Pressed on from the East by other tribes set in motion by war or want, they broke up their camps, and advanced towards the West. They forced their way through the Russian tribes, penetrated the passes of Mount Krapak, and spread themselves over Pannonia, their future country. They called and still call themselves Majars: by the Europeans they were termed Turks and Hungarians. Their government had been hitherto administered by a council of Voivodes, or hereditary chiefs; they now chose a sovereign in the person of Almus, the father of Arpad.

The empire of Charlemagne had extended to Transylvania. The king of the Moravians, who dwelt in western Hungary, refused obedience to Arnulf, king of Germany, and even invaded his dominions. Unable to reduce him, Arnulf invited the aid of the Hungarians, A. D. 897. and the Moravian prince was speedily humbled. Arnulf being succeeded by his infant son Louis IV., all restraint, which gratitude or fear had laid on the Hungarians, was removed. They rushed into and wasted Bavaria, overthrew the Christians at Augsburg, swept over Swabia and Franconia, spread to the Baltic, and laid the city

of Bremen in ashes. During a period of more than thirty years Germany paid tribute to these barbarians.

The Hungarians passed the Rhine, and ravaged southern France to the Pyrenees. Italy attracted them: they encamped on the Brenta; but, dreading the strength of the country, they asked permission to retire. The king of Italy, Berenger, proudly refused, and the lives of 20,000 men were the penalty of his rashness. Pavia was soon in flames, and all Italy, to the point of Reggio, was ravaged. The Bulgarians, a Slavonic tribe, had been converted to Christianity, and they formed the north-western barrier of the eastern empire. Their resistance was overcome, and the rapid bands of the Hungarians were soon seen before the gates of Constantinople. By arts and presents they were induced to retire.

The ravages of the Hungarians extended through a period of nearly half a century (889—934). The valour of the Saxon princes, Henry the Fowler and his son Otho the Great, at length delivered Europe from them.

The Northmen.

Scandinavia had been originally peopled by the Finnic race. In very remote ages the Goths, whose primitive seat was, probably, the great central mountain-range of Asia, had penetrated thither, and expelled the less warlike Finns. We have already seen them recross the Baltic, and eventually establish themselves in Spain and Italy. Every where they appear as conquerors. In Scandinavia they were generally divided into small independent states: their land was poor; they had little agriculture and less trade to occupy them: they loved war, were bold mariners, and early began to commit depredations on each other and on strangers.

In this period, Gorm the Old in Denmark and Harold Fair-hair in Norway had reduced several of the independent chieftains of these countries, and established their respective monarchies. Several of the high-spirited *reguli* scorned to own as masters those whom they had regarded as equals; they embarked in their ships, sought A. D. 874.

and colonised the dreary shores of Iceland or the Feroe, Shetland, and Orkney islands, whence they annually ravaged the coasts of their forsaken country. By these and by the younger sons of the Yarls (*earls*) of the north, piracy was gradually committed on a more extensive scale than hitherto: the coasts of England and France were now richer and more inviting, and annually the fleets of the Northmen spread desolation along them.

Towards the time of Charlemagne their depredations on these countries had begun. The date of their appearance in England is the year 787, and shortly afterwards they ravaged the coast of France. During the reign of Louis they were more frequent in their visits. The unsettled state of the country in the reign of Charles the Bald favouring them, they grew more bold, sailed up the navigable rivers, and plundered the interior. In 872 they pillaged Angers; in 888 they laid siege to Paris, which, but for the efforts of Gosselin, the bishop, and Eudes, the count of that city, would have been their prey. But the number and boldness of their invasions continually increasing, Charles the Simple was
A. D. finally forced to cede to Rolf, or Rollo, one of their lead-
918. ers, the large province since called from them Normandy. This was a wise measure, for Rolf and his subjects embraced the Christian religion, and guarded the kingdom from farther invasion.

In England, where they were called Danes, they harassed the coasts in a similar manner, and gradually formed permanent settlements. Even the great Alfred was obliged to yield to them the kingdoms of Northumbria and East Anglia, and at length they placed monarchs of their nation on the throne of England.

But the Northmen also extended their name and their power eastwards. The coasts of the Baltic were among the scenes of their depredations; and the Russians, a Slavonian tribe, who had subdued the original natives of its eastern shores, admired and feared them. As allies they employed them in their wars against the tribes

of the interior. These Varangians, as they were called, A. D. like their Anglo-Saxon brethren, made themselves masters of the people that invited their aid, and Ruric, one of their chiefs, established a dynasty which endured for seven hundred years. The house of Ruric, at first depending on the arms of the Varangians for support and safety, new adventurers continually flocked to them, and were rewarded by grants of lands and subjects; but when they felt themselves firmly seated, they found they could dispense with these expensive auxiliaries, and Vladimir I. recommended to them the service of the Greek emperors, as more profitable. They followed his advice, and from that period till the end of the empire the Varangians were the faithful guards of the throne of the Byzantine Cæsars. 862.

France.

The power and authority of the Carlovingian princes continually decreased. France was now divided among several dukes and counts, who, though acknowledging themselves vassals of the crown, exercised all the rights of independent sovereigns. Louis IV. and Lothaire, the successors of Charles the Simple, though of more energetic character, were unable to restore the royal dignity; and on the death of Louis V., a feeble youth, though his uncle Charles duke of Lorraine was heir, Hugh Capet, son of Hugh duke of France, Orleans, and Burgundy, and descended from Eudes and Robert the Strong, who had defended Paris from the Northmen, had himself crowned king at Rheims, and when Charles of Lorraine came in arms to claim his right, he met with 987. defeat and captivity.

Thus, after a period of 235 years from the deposition of Chilperic (752) to the coronation of Hugh Capet (987), the Carlovingian, like the Merovingian dynasty, expired by its own feebleness. Would it not appear that great families, like fruit-trees, become with time effete, and incapable of producing the similitude of those powers to which they owed their original elevation?

So little reason is there to be proud of a long line of noble ancestry!

Hugh, though king of France, was in reality only master of his own demesnes, and feudal superior of the great vassals of the crown. Even this superiority was not acknowledged south of the Loire, and in his own fiefs of Paris and Orleans, which by his accession were regarded as reunited to the crown, he and his successors were frequently defied and made war on by their refractory barons. He used the precaution of getting his son Robert crowned during his own lifetime a plan which was followed by his two successors, Robert and Henry I. Under the reign of Philip I. the monarchy was grown sufficiently strong to dispense with this custom.

Germany — House of Saxony.

On the death of Louis, son of Arnulf, the German branch of the Carlovingians was extinct. Charles the Simple, king of France, was doubtless of that race; but the present situation of Germany demanded a sovereign of more energetic character. The Germans were divided into five nations, Franks, Swabians, Bavarians, Saxons, Lorrainers. These nations met to appoint a successor,
A. D. and the choice of the assembly fell upon Conrad of
911. Franconia, descended through females from Charlemagne.

Conrad did not long enjoy his dignity. Feeling the necessity there was for the sceptre being grasped by a vigorous hand, he sought not to perpetuate it in his own family; but when dying, he recommended, instead of his brother, Henry duke of Saxony, also descended on the female side from Charlemagne, to the choice of the electors.

919. Henry, surnamed the Fowler, was son of Otho, who had reduced Thuringia, and extended his dominion to the Elbe. This able and politic prince was at first obliged to continue the tribute to the Hungarians; but he surrounded the hitherto open towns and villages with

walls and ditches, obliged every ninth man in each district to reside in them, gave them privileges, and encouraged industry and arts of every kind: the courts of justice were held in them, and they were the depositories of a third of the produce of the lands of the district. He established the march of Meissen against the Slaves, and erected bishoprics there for their conversion. Thus prepared, when the years of truce with the Hungarians were expired; he suffered them to come with arms to demand tribute; and he rose from his bed of sickness to meet them, and drove them out of his dominions with slaughter. A. D. 934.

On the death of Henry, the princes and people assembled at Aachin, and elected his son Otho, deservedly styled the Great. 936 It being a principle of the German empire, that an emperor should neither retain a fief nor add one to the domain, Otho bestowed Saxony on Herman, a brave warrior; but he sought to indemnify himself by granting archbishoprics and dukedoms to his own family; a policy that availed him but little, as they were frequently in rebellion against him.

In the discord that pervaded Italy at this period, Adelaide, widow of Lothaire, son of Hugh of Provence, who had been king of Italy, invoked the aid of Otho against Berenger II., who had seized on the throne. Otho crossed the Alps, married Adelaide, and Berenger 952. did homage to him for his kingdom. Troubles afterwards breaking out in that country, Otho, at the call of Pope John XII., again descended from the Alps, deposed Berenger, and was crowned by the Lombards. The next year he visited Rome, and was there received and crowned as Charlemagne had been. But the pope, seeing the power of his ally, sought to raise up enemies against him. Otho sent ambassadors to complain, and at last came himself to Rome. The pope fled, and the 963. people swore never to receive a pope without the consent of Otho and his successors. Three days after, the emperor, in an assembly of bishops and nobles, had John deposed, and Leo VIII. chosen in his place. The

party of John was, however, still strong: the Romans rose against the Germans and their friends. Otho came a third time to Rome: an injured husband had slain John; famine forced the Romans to surrender; and thus originated the right of the emperor to nominate the pope.

During the reign of Otho I. the Hungarians, assisted by domestic faction, penetrated to the heart of Flanders. All the forces of Germany and all the aids of superstition were arrayed against this dreadful enemy; and the neighbourhood of Augsburg, which some years before
A. D. had witnessed their triumph, now beheld the final ruin
955. of the Hungarian might.

974. Otho II., son of Otho the Great, married Theophano, step-daughter of the Byzantine emperor, Nicephorus Phocas, who made over to him all the imperial rights and claims on Lower Italy. Otho was an able prince; but he had many enemies to contend with, and sometimes endured the mortification of defeat.

983. Otho III., educated by his mother Theophano, was a prince of amiable temper and cultivated mind. He loved to reside in Italy; but the turbulence of the Romans gave him continued uneasiness and occupation. During his minority they rebelled against him and the pope; but when he came of age he besieged and took the city. He treated it with severity, and hung the consul Crescentius, the leader of the popular party.

1002. Otho dying without issue, his kinsman, Henry, duke of Bavaria, was elected to the vacant dignity. Henry II. was successful in his foreign wars. He passed less of his time in Italy than his predecessors had done.

1024. With him ended the Saxon line of emperors.

Italy.

The great vassals had in Italy succeeded in making themselves independent. Of these the principal were the dukes of Benevento, Tuscany, and Spoleto, the marquisses of Ivrea, Susa, and Friuli: the pope ruled the turbulent Romans: Apulia and Calabria were go-

verned by the Catapan of the eastern emperors: the republics of Amalfi and Naples acknowledged their supremacy; and Salerno and Capua were under their own princes.

When the Carlovingian princes had lost their power, the dukes of Spoleto and Friuli contended for the kingdom of Italy. Berenger of Friuli governed with the title of king, but amidst continual factions, for thirty-six years. His adversaries called in Rudolf II., king of Burgundy. In a battle Berenger defeated him; but in the pursuit, Boniface of Spoleto, Rudolf's nephew, fell on him; and Rudolf turning, Berenger was defeated, and soon after murdered. Rudolf was now made king of Italy, but did not long enjoy his crown. Hugh, count of Provence, who had driven the grandson of Boson out of the kingdom of Arles, laid claim to Italy; and, supported by the clergy and the great, he forced Rudolf to resign, and accept a part of the kingdom of Arles in exchange. Hugh reigned over and oppressed the nobles of Italy sixteen years. Berenger II., of the house of Ivrea, succeeded, and was nearly as tyrannical; and, as we have seen, the aid of Otho the Great was invoked against his oppression, and the German monarchs became kings of Italy. A. D. 923. 926. 945.

The dukes of Spoleto and Tuscany generally directed the election of the popes. Virtue and piety were little considered in the candidates: political motives and female influence decided each election. The infamous Theodora and her daughter Marozia disposed of the chair of St. Peter at their pleasure: mere boys were chosen: sons succeeded their fathers: scandalous vices disgraced the heads of the church; and some suffered shameful deaths. Among the charges against John XII. were his having drunk the health of the devil, invoked Venus, emasculated a bishop, and slept with his father's concubine.

The duchy of Benevento had been greatly diminished by the formation of the states of Salerno and Capua; and at this time the Normans established themselves at

Aversa, a town given to them by the duke of Naples. The Saracens possessed Sicily, and had settlements in Calabria.

England.

A. D.
828. Egbert had united all England under one sceptre; and internal warfare being thus checked, the country might have advanced in civilisation and the arts of peace; but
832. the Danes now began to visit the coasts with large fleets, carrying havoc and desolation wherever they appeared. The reigns of his successors are chiefly marked by their
871. struggles with these formidable foes. When Alfred mounted the throne, they were masters of the greater part of England. This monarch, one of the ablest that ever adorned a diadem, spent a great part of his reign in doubtful conflict with them, which ended by the Danes embracing Christianity, and Alfred ceding to them Northumbria and East Anglia. Peace being restored, the wise king turned all his thoughts to the formation of such institutions and regulations as might increase the power, the wealth, and the civilisation of his subjects. He established schools, regulated the police, built ships of war, and encouraged trade and navigation. Three able princes, Edward, Athelstan, and Edmund, pursued the victories of Alfred: under them the monarchy became co-extensive with the present England; and Edgar the Peaceable was the most powerful of the Anglo-Saxon kings.

The Danes still continued their hostilities. The successors of Edgar were feeble, the great subjects intractable, the Danes in the kingdom numerous: the custom was introduced of buying them off, and then of employing the Normans against them. In the reign of Ethelred II. the savage and fatal measure of murdering the Danes throughout England was adopted. Filled with rage at this base treachery, Sueno, king of Denmark, invaded and conquered the kingdom. His son Canute (Knut) was king of both Denmark and England, and he is justly placed in the list of great princes.

He was succeeded by his sons Harold and Hardicanute. On the death of the last, the English nation returned to the Anglo-Saxon line, in the person of Edward, surnamed the Confessor, an amiable but feeble prince.

An injudicious practice had been introduced of giving the government of large provinces, the former kingdoms, to particular noblemen. Hitherto each shire had been governed by its alderman, and the moderate size of a shire prevented its governor acquiring any very formidable power. But a man who wielded the forces of such a state as Mercia or Wessex, might easily defy his sovereign. Godwin, a man of ability, had gained for himself and his sons the government of several provinces; and on the death of Edward, his son Harold, a man of many noble qualities, had himself chosen king by the Witena-gemot, or great council of the nation, to the exclusion of the lawful heir. He was opposed by his own brother Tosti, by the king of Norway, and by a still more formidable rival, William duke of Normandy. The former two he vanquished: in the battle of Hastings he lost to the latter both life and crown. A. D. 1066.

Russia.

Russia under her Scandinavian princes became known to Europe. The Russians appeared at Constantinople at first as traders, exchanging the furs, hides, bees'-wax and honey of the North for the productions and manufactures of the empire. Their cupidity was excited, and they sought to take by force the wealth of which they got but scanty supplies by trade. Their fleets repeatedly assailed Constantinople, and their armies invaded the empire and Bulgaria. Nicephorus fought in vain against them, but the heroic John Zimisces vindicated the honour of the empire and the wrongs of Bulgaria, and the Russian grand duke Svatoslof and his army, surrounded by the galleys and the legions, was forced to surrender, and retire on honourable terms. A. D. 973.

Olga, the mother of Svatoslof, a princess of mind as masculine as the Catherines or Elizabeths, had come to 955.

Constantinople and received baptism. At Kiov and
A. D. Novogorod she persisted in her new faith. Her grand-
980. son Vladimir, at first a zealous votary of the gods of his country, at length embraced the religion of his grandmother, and a marriage with Anna, sister of Theophano, wife of Otho II., confirmed him in his new faith. Olga had sought to improve her country: she made roads, built bridges, and introduced social order. Vladimir erected schools, opened new sources of trade, had relations with foreign courts, was active in the introduction of the Christian religion,—was, in fact, the Peter of the tenth century.

1015. Yaroslof, son of Vladimir, was the legislator of Russia. He caused books to be translated from the Greek. He was the ally of the German emperors against the Hungarians, and his daughter Anna was married to Henry I. of France. Alexius Comnenus, the Byzantine emperor, sent the imperial insignia to the grandson of Yaroslof, Vladimir Monomachus, and Kiov swore always to choose the Tsar from his house.

Constantinople.

829. Theophilus, son of Michael the Stammerer, was a virtuous prince, and an enemy to the images. On his death his widow Theodora, like Irene, during the minority of
842. her son Michael III. finally re-established them. Michael was a weak prince; but his uncle Cæsar Bardas adminis-
867. tered the empire with prudence and ability. Basilius murdered them both, and mounted the throne. His
886. government was vigorous and active. His son Leo fol-
911. lowed his maxims. The sceptre passed to the infant son of Leo, Constantine Porphyrogenitus, under whose name first his uncle Alexander and then his mother Zoe go-
919. verned. By perjury Romanus Lacopenus obtained the direction of affairs; but he guided them with ability. Constantine, apparently devoted to books and wine, managed to deprive Romanus of his power, and became
959. sole ruler. Romanus II. reigned after him with little credit.

Nicephorus Phocas distinguished himself in war against the Persians, the Saracens of Crete, and the Russians. His successor, John Zimisces, was the conqueror of the Russian duke Svatoslof. The sons of Romanus II., Basil II. and Constantine VIII., reigned in conjunction, with reputation. Basil completely broke the power of the Bulgarians, and dying after a reign of fifty years, left the sole dominion to his brother, who left it to his daughter Zoe and her husband, the patrician Romanus Argyrus, a man of some ability. Romanus was unfortunate in a battle against the Saracens at Aleppo. The empress fell in love with a handsome youth. Romanus was murdered, and her favourite raised to the throne under the name of Michael IV.; but, goaded by remorse, he abandoned the palace to shut himself up in a convent. The empress then placed his cousin Michael Calaphates, on the throne. Finding him disobedient to her will, she dethroned and blinded him, and then gave the dignity to Constantine Monomachus, who had been her first love, who governed with order and regularity. On his death, Theodora, the sister of Zoe (now dead) seized the reins of government, and held them for a short time with no steady hand. With her ended the dynasty of Basil I., which had occupied the throne nearly two centuries.

A. D. 969. 975. 1025 1028. 1034. 1041. 1042. 1054. 1056.

Michael VI., a soldier, was chosen emperor, and gave one among the many examples there are of the unfitness of a man for the supreme station who may have been distinguished in an inferior one. He was dethroned, and Isaac Comnenus put in his place. Isaac ruled with wisdom, vigour, and justice; but bodily infirmity made him retire after a short reign. Constantine Ducas, his successor, was just, but no soldier. His widow married and raised to the throne Romanus Diogenes, a man of noble mind and military talent. He warred against the Seljookian Turks; but by the treachery of his nobles he fell into the hands of the sultan Alp Arslan, by whom he was honourably treated and set at liberty. On his return he found treachery, revolt, and murder awaiting him. Michael VII., the son of Ducas, was weak and

1057. 1059. 1068. 1071.

incapable; he was the slave of a vicious minister, and he
A. D. took orders, and attained to dignity in the church. Ni-
1078. cephorus Botoniates was a soldier, but unfit to be em-
1081. peror. He gave way to the dynasty of the Comnenians, with whom a new state of things commenced.

Decline of the Arabian Empire—Africa.

The Abbasside khalifs had never possessed Spain.
789. In the reign of Haroon-er-Rasheed, Edris, a descendant of Fatema, fled from Arabia to the extreme west, and declared his independence. His son, also named Edris, built the city of Fez, the capital of a state which soon became populous and flourishing.

805. During the reign of Edris II. of Fez, Ibrahim the son of Aglab, governor of Cairoan, one of the lieutenants of Haroon-er-Rasheed, established an independent dominion in the ancient territory of Carthage, of which Tunis became the capital.

908. About a century later, Mahadee Obeid Allah, a real or pretended descendant of Fatema, founded a state on the coast of Africa, of which the city of Mahadiah, built by him on a peninsula, running out into the Mediterranean, was the capital. He made war on and defeated both the Aglabites and the Edrisites, whose kingdoms lay to the west of his, and added their territories to those he already possessed.

969. Moez-ladin-Allah, the great-grandson of Mahadee, had wells sunk in the desert, and then marched an army to Egypt, which had ceased to obey the khalifs. He took possession of that country with little opposition, where he founded the city of Cairo (Al Cahira) henceforth its capital. His reign was one of mildness and firmness. Armies conducted by skilful and victorious generals conquered Syria, and Damascus and Jerusalem were among the cities which obeyed the khalif of Egypt, whose dynasty—the Fatemite—ruled for two centuries from the Euphrates to the deserts of Cairoan.

971. Moez, aware of the impossibility of retaining distant provinces, separated by sandy deserts from the seat of

government, wisely abandoned all thoughts of seeking to retain his conquests on the north-western coast of Africa. He therefore gave up to Yoossef Belkin, the son of Zeïri, the western conquests of Mahadee. Zeïri was of a noble Arab family, and had headed a troop of warriors, who were solely devoted to him. His dynasty—the Zeïrides—reigned till 1148 over the north-western coast during 177 years. A. D.

A prophet, named Abdallah, rose among the tribes 1056.
subject to the Zeïrides. He taught Islam in greater purity. His followers became numerous. Under the command of Aboo Bekr, son of Omar, they took arms to spread the faith, and carried on successful wars against the princes of Fez, Tangiers, and the other states. Yoossef, the successor of Aboo Bekr, founded Morocco at some springs of water, and it became during his life- 1069.
time the capital of a state reaching to the Straits of Gibraltar. Almoravites was the appellation of the followers of Abdallah: they led a pastoral life, and their princes Yoossef and his successors were both powerful and peaceable.

Decline of the Arabian Empire — Asia.

Thus were Spain, Africa, and Syria lost to the house of Abbas, and at the same time their eastern possessions were rapidly reduced in extent.

Taher, an able general, had essentially served Ma-
moon in the contest with his brother. He was dis- 813.
missed in honourable exile to command in the province of Khorassan; but here he made himself independent, and his descendants, the Taherites, to the fourth generation governed that province with wisdom and justice.

The Taherite dynasty was overthrown by the Suffaree, 872.
founded by Yacoob ben Leis, the son of a *pewterer* in Seistan (hence the name Suffaree), who abandoned his trade for that of a robber. An accident gave occasion to his being employed by the prince of Seistan in whose service he led an army which he turned against his master, whom he sent prisoner to Bagdad: obtaining

in reward the government of that province, he gradually made himself master of Khorassan and nearly all Persia. The khalif instigated Ismael Samanee, a Turkish chief, to seize on Transoxiana. Amer, the brother and successor of Yacoob, marched against him; but was defeated, taken, and sent to Bagdad, where, after some years' confinement, he was put to death. Transoxiana, Bulch, Khorassan, and Seistan now formed the dominions of the Samanians.

A. D. 892. The Arabian princes of the tribe of Hamadan made themselves masters of and held for 109 years (892—1001) Mesopotamia, with the cities of Mosul and Aleppo. They were extolled by their poets for their beauty and their noble qualities. Their history presents the usual series of crimes.

900. The power of the Samanee princes extended over the north of Persia. The south obeyed the Dilemee, so called from their native country Dilem, as they were styled Buyah from one of their ancestors. A fisher of Dilem, Abul-Shujah-al-Buyah, entered the service of the governor of his native province. Under the conqueror and successor of that governor, Ali Buyah, the son of Shujah, rose to high military command; and he defeated Yacoot, the governor of Isfahan, and gained thereby great wealth and reputation. Ali pursued and again defeated Yacoot, and made himself master of Fars, Kerman, Khuzistan, and Irak. He advanced to Bagdad, and obliged the khalif to bestow on him the government of Fars and Irak, and to make his younger brother Ahmed his vizier; his second brother Hussun acted under himself.

Ahmed deposed the khalif, and raised Mothi to his place, over whom he exercised unlimited authority during his life. Ali dying, universally regretted, was succeeded by his brother Hussun, who left his authority to his son, the able and excellent Azed-e-Dowlat, who united in his person the offices of vizier to the khalif and viceroy of Fars and Irak.

After the death of Azed, one of the brightest cha-

racters in oriental history, the power of the Dilemee gradually declined. Mahmood of Ghizni stripped them of all their possessions but Fars and Kerman. They retained these and the office of Ameer-ul-Omrah (*chief of the nobles*) conferred on Ali Buyah, which gave them authority over the country round Bagdad, till that capital was taken by Toghrul-beg-Seljookee. A. D. 1055.

Causes of the Decline of the Power of the Khalifs.

An obvious cause of the dissolution of the empire of the Arabs was its extent, the consequent distance of several of the provinces from the seat of empire, and the absolute power with which the lieutenants of a despot must be invested. Hence the assumption of independence was easy, the means of punishing slight; no principle of loyalty binding the subject to the sovereign. Thus Spain was lost at once, Africa speedily afterwards.

But in the case of the Abbassides there were some particular causes. Like their predecessors, their title was bad. The descendants of the son-in-law and earliest disciple of the prophet were naturally regarded as having a better claim to the khalifat than those of any other branch of the family. The rights of Ali's family were still, therefore, openly or secretly maintained by a numerous party. We have seen how easily Edris, and afterwards Mahadee, founded empires. The Fatemite khalifs of the latter house always affected to regard themselves as the rightful successors of the prophet. These khalifs were, it is said, at the head of a secret society, whose object was the overthrow of the khalifat of Bagdad; and its missionaries continually pervaded the dominions of the house of Abbas, making converts to the claims of Ali. The various sectaries who aimed at private aggrandizement frequently put forward these claims, and thereby attracted followers. The Ismailites were a sect founded expressly on this principle, and out of them arose the society of the Assassins, one of the most dreadful scourges of the East.

Yet the house of Abbas might, perhaps, have retained

the empire of Asia, were it not that, like the contemporary Carlovingians, the Abbassides gradually degenerated, and fell into weakness and incapacity, and at the same time formed a prætorian guard. Motassem, the
A. D. eighth khalif of this family, with whom its glory expired,
841. perceiving how the valour and virtues of the Arabs had decayed, adopted the plan of forming a body guard from the martial hordes of the Turks w o dwelt beyond the Jihon. Their youths, taken in war or purchased as slaves, were trained to arms, and instructed in the principles of Islam. Motassem collected 50,000 of them around his throne at Bagdad. Their tumultuous conduct incensed the citizens, and he and they retired to Samara, a city twelve leagues from Bagdad, on the Tigris. Motawakkel, the son of Motassem, was a cruel tyrant: he favoured and relied solely on his Turkish
861. guards, and they murdered him at the instigation of his son Mostanser, whose remorse for his crime abridged his life. The guards had now felt their own power: their numbers were kept up by regular recruiting in
862. Turkistan: they forced Mosteyoo, uncle of Mostanser, to whom they gave the throne, to surrender to them the right, not only of nominating their own commander, but the emir-ul-omra of the empire. They treated the commanders of the faithful with every indignity and insult; and these unhappy princes were by them beaten with clubs, dragged by the feet, and exposed almost naked to the burning rays of the sun.

907. Mohtadi Billah made a bold effort to curb them. He seized Moones, their commander, one of his ablest generals, and when they assailed the palace, flung his head out to them. They, however, burst in, and the unhappy khalif expired beneath their feet. His brother and successor Moktader, to rid himself of them, placed them, as his best troops, on the different frontiers, and thereby hastened their becoming independent.

868. A Turkish governor of Egypt, named Tooloon, had some time before made himself independent. He had, it is said, found a large treasure, and thereon raised his

power. His son and successor Ahmed was the father of the poor, but inexorable in the punishment of crime, and 18,000 persons were executed during his reign. The commander of the faithful, Motedad, married Cotr-en-neda (*Dewdrop*) the daughter of Khemeruyah, son of Ahmed, and on her road to Bagdad, she found each evening a tent, splendid and furnished as the palace of her father, prepared for her reception. Haroon, the grandson of Ahmed, fell in defence of his kingdom, A. D. and with him ended the dynasty of the Tooloonides. 905. Egypt was reunited to the dominions of the khalif Mohtadi Billah. But twenty-nine years afterwards another Turk, Akhsheed, separated it anew, and it never again obeyed the khalifs of Bagdad. 934.

The Gasnevides.

Sebuktajee, a slave of a minister of the Samanians, by 997. valour and prudence obtained the government of the city and district of Gasna or Ghizni. His son Mahmood gradually extended his power from the Caspian to the Indus, and the khalif honoured him with the title of *Sultan*. The power of Mahmood increased with eastern rapidity. India attracted his cupidity: since the days of Seleucus Nicator she had not been penetrated to any extent by a foreign conqueror: she abounded in treasure; her people were unwarlike: Mahmood and his Moslems poured down on her from her northern frontier: he reached the Ganges; resistance was ineffectual; all submitted. His religious zeal was displayed in the destruction of the idols of India, and an incredible treasure rewarded his holy warfare. Twelve times did the Gasnevide monarch march to the pillage of this rich and feeble country.

Spain.

Family dissensions and the revolt of governors diminished the power of the dynasty founded by Abd-er-rahman, and the Christians gradually extended their possessions from the mountains to the plain.

A. D. 718. The kingdom founded in the Asturias by Pelayo, at the time of the Mohammedan conquest, was extended by his successors. Alfonso I. the Catholic, a gallant 757. warrior, ruled from the ocean into Aragon, from the bay of Biscay into Castile, — over one fourth of Spain. The seat of government was transferred by Garcia from 910. Oviedo to Leon, and the kingdom was henceforth named that of Leon.

The county of Castile had been formed out of the southern conquests of Alfonso I. On the failure of the 1026. line of Gonzales, its counts, it fell to Sancho the Great, king of Navarre, by whom it was formed into a kingdom for his son Fernando. Navarre itself had, it would appear, been originally a dependency of the Asturias. By marriage and inheritance, Sancho the Great ruled over nearly all Christian Spain; and thus, at the time when the empire of the khalifs of Cordova was falling to pieces, almost the entire of the Christian states were united under Sancho of Navarre. But he again separated them, giving only Navarre to his eldest son, leaving Castile to Fernando, who had acquired Leon by marriage, and forming in the mountains about the little stream of the Aragon the kingdom so denominated for his natural son Ramirez; a kingdom which, in wise laws and able rulers, eclipsed all in the Peninsula.

801. The county of Barcelona was formed by Charlemagne, and conferred on Bera, a native of Gothic Gaul. Count 884. Wifredo II. the Warlike, drove the Moslems from all Catalonia. The power of the counts of Barcelona continually increased, and at length Raymond V. obtained 1137. by marriage the crown of Aragon.

All these sovereigns pressed on the Mohammedan emirs, who were less united. The latter, unable to withstand, called over Yoossef-ben-Tashfin, the Almoravide, who had just founded the empire of Morocco. He came, repulsed the Christians; and all Spain, south of the mountains of Castile, was united under his dominion.

CHAP. V.

INCREASE OF THE PAPAL POWER.

Italy — The Normans.

After the Normans had embraced Christianity, they became distinguished for their devotion according to the fashion of the times. Of this pilgrimage formed a principal part; and the variety and the dangers of it were pleasing to the valiant Normans. On a visit of a number of them to the cavern of Mount Garganus, in Apulia, A. D. 1016. they were accosted by a citizen of Bari, who held out large hopes if they would assist in expelling the Greeks from Italy. They consented, and, the following year, a large body passed the Alps in small parties, and united in Apulia. They were unsuccessful against the Greek troops; but they kept together, and were employed by the neighbouring princes in their quarrels. The duke of Naples built for them the town of Aversa. Numbers 1029. of every nation flocked to their standard. Count Rainulf was their commander.

The Saracens had now held Sicily for two centuries. 1038. They were fallen into disunion, had thrown off their allegiance to the king of Tunis: each petty chief aimed at independence. The court of Byzantium was always anxious to recover the island: the present opportunity seemed favourable. Two brothers of the Saracens being at enmity, one applied for the aid of the Christians. The Grecian governor of Italy was directed to engage the Normans, and five hundred of their knights were enrolled. On landing in Sicily, the Saracens were found united; but nothing could resist Norman valour, and thirteen cities and a great part of the island were reduced to the obedience of the emperor. In the division of the spoil the Normans were unjustly treated, and on their return to Italy they invaded Apulia, to indemnify them- 1040.

selves. Their whole forces were 700 horse and 500 foot; the imperial troops are stated at 60,000; yet, in the course of three years, the empire retained only the
A. D. towns of Bari, Otranto, Brundusium, and Tarentum.
1043. The Normans divided their conquests into twelve districts, over each of which was a count, one of whom, under the title of count of Apulia, presided in their councils, held in the town of Melfi. The first count of Apulia was William of the Iron Arm, equally distinguished in the virtues of war and peace.

The rapacity and injustice of the Normans made them hated. The court of Byzantium sought to deliver Italy from them, by inducing them to take a settlement in Asia, on the frontiers of Persia; but the wily Normans saw through and rejected the imperial munificence. The Byzantine agent Argyrus thus foiled, determined on force, and a league was formed between the pope Leo IX. and the emperors of the East and West, against
1049. them. The pope travelled to Germany to seek aid. Argyrus caused a number of the Normans to be assassinated. On the return of the pope, with a small band of German auxiliaries, a force considerable in number was collected. The Normans were deserted by all; they could only muster 3000 horse; they were reduced to great straits for want of provisions, were dispirited by famine and superstition, and offered to submit. The alternative of death or exile was given by the pope:—they resolved to die as soldiers, engaged the enemy, defeated them, and took the pope prisoner at Civitella. The warriors knelt and implored his forgiveness; the
1053. well-meaning pontiff lamented his error: by his right, derived from the grant of Constantine, he bestowed on them their present and future conquests in Apulia and Calabria, as a fief of the holy see, which relation the kingdom of Naples has ever since retained.

Tancred de Hauteville, a valvassor of Normandy, had twelve sons; and his patrimony was small: ten of them, at various times, crossed the Alps, and joined the Normans in Apulia. Robert, surnamed Guiscard, (Wizard?)

the fourth of them, soon became distinguished. He commanded a division at Civitella, and gained there the prize of valour. His three elder brothers, William of the Iron Arm, Drogo, and Humphry, had successively attained to the rank of Count of Apulia. On the death of the last named, leaving his sons minors, their claims were postponed to those of Robert, and he was chosen count of Apulia. The pope Nicholas conferred on him and his posterity the title of duke of Apulia; but he waited till the next campaign had achieved the conquest of Reggio and Cosenza, and then he called on his victorious troops to confirm what the pope had bestowed. The soldiers joyfully hailed him duke, and he henceforth entitled himself, "By the grace of God and St. Peter duke of Apulia, Calabria, and hereafter of Sicily." But many years elapsed before he was master of all these dominions. The Normans were few; the counts were not attached to him, and often conspired against him; the sons of Humphry asserted their claims, and plotted against him; the Greeks and Lombards defended the towns on the sea-coast with skill and courage, and the Normans were unused to sieges. Twenty years were spent in giving his dominions the extent of the present kingdom of Naples. A. D. 1060.

The conquest of Sicily was achieved in the reign of Robert Guiscard. Roger, the last of the twelve brothers, having arrived in Apulia, Robert admired, then envied his noble qualities. The Greeks had abandoned Sicily, and its conquest was proposed to Roger. With sixty followers, he crossed the strait, and drove the Saracens to the gates of Messina. The spoils acquired attracted others to his standard; his brother aided; small bodies of Normans overthrew large armies of the Moslems; and at the end of thirty years Roger, with the title of Great Count, was master of the island. His government was liberal and judicious beyond the age. The Moslems were protected in their persons, religion, and property. 1060. 1090.

The ambition of Robert aimed at conquest in the Greek empire. His daughter had been betrothed to the

son of the emperor Michael; but the youth had died, and his father been deposed. Robert affected to be the avenger of his friend: a pseudo-Michael appeared at Salerno, and was acknowledged by the wily duke and the able Gregory VII. An army was collected during two years, and assembled at Otranto. Robert landed near Vallona, at the head of 30,000 men, of whom the kernel were 1300 Norman knights. Siege was laid to Durazzo, which was vigorously defended. The Norman fleet suffered from a dreadful storm; it was defeated by that of Venice, and a reinforcement was thrown into Durazzo. The able emperor Alexius Comnenus advanced at the head of a large army; the English, who had left their country, now enslaved by the Normans, increased the number of the brave Varangians; with them were joined some companies of Latins or Western Europeans, and the rebels who had fled from Robert; and a body of Turkish horse, obeyed the commands of the Grecian emperor. Despair added to the courage of the Normans; the emperor injudiciously gave battle; the troops of Robert at first yielded; the Varangians, who occupied the van, imprudently advanced too far, and exposing their flanks to the lances of the Norman
A. D. knights, they were slaughtered. The Turks fled, and
1081. Alexius now saw the battle was lost. On the valour of his own subjects he placed no reliance.

1082. Durazzo was taken by treachery. Robert advanced through Epirus into Thessaly; but his army was reduced to a third. The cities of Apulia were in revolt. Henry king of Germany was advancing against him. He passed over to Apulia, leaving the command of the army to the gallant Bohemond, his son by his first wife. Bohemond besieged Larissa. Alexius collected another army; various indecisive engagements took place; the counts betrayed and deserted Bohemond; his camp was pillaged, and he was forced to evacuate the country, and return to his father. Meanwhile Henry had entered Rome, and created an anti-pope. Gregory was besieged in the Vati-
1084. can: he invoked the aid of his Norman vassal. Robert

displayed the holy banner; 6000 horse and 30,000 foot marched beneath it to Rome. Henry retired, and Gregory was liberated. Thus Robert, in the space of three years, had the glory of making the emperors of the East and the West fly before him, and of delivering the greatest of the popes from captivity.

A. D.

Robert prepared again to attack the eastern empire. 1084. Alexius had collected a fleet to oppose him; the Venetians joined their vessels to those of the empire. The Norman troops were, however, landed in safety in Epirus, and then Robert, with twenty galleys, sought the allied navy. Three battles were fought off Corfu: in the first two the Normans were repulsed; in the third their victory was complete. Winter came on. In the spring Robert renewed his operations, intending to turn his arms against Greece; but an epidemic disease seized him in Cefalonia, and he died in his tent in the 70th 1085. year of his age. The army dispersed and retired. Robert was succeeded by his second son Roger; Bohemond being regarded as illegitimate, as his father and mother had been within the prohibited degrees of kindred: his claims, however, disturbed the nation till the crusades drew him off to Asia.

Italy—The Popes.

The pretensions of the popes during this period advanced with rapid strides. In their contests with the emperors of the house of Franconia they had to rely on the aid of a strong party in Germany, of the great countess Matilda in the north of Italy, and of their Norman vassals in the south. Extent of the papal dominion, and emancipation from the superiority of the emperors, were the great objects in view: the daring temper and lofty genius of Gregory VII. almost assured the victory.

Leo IX. and Stephen IX. had adorned the chair by their birth and virtues. In the pontificate of Nicholas II. it was established in a synod that the popes were to be chosen by the cardinal bishops (those whose sees

were near Rome), and approved of by the cardinal priests and deacons (ministers of the parish churches at Rome) and the people, and then presented for confirmation to the emperor. Hildebrand, archdeacon of Rome, was the author of this plan, the object of which was gradually to free the papacy from imperial control. On the death of Nicholas he had Alexander II. chosen and consecrated without waiting for the imperial sanction, and on the death of Alexander he was himself raised to the pontificate under the title of Gregory VII., yet he refused to be consecrated till he had obtained the emperor's consent.

The emperor was Henry IV., a dissolute, arbitrary prince. The Saxons were in rebellion against him, and the princes in general disaffected. Gregory commenced his attack by excommunicating some of his ministers for simony: he then published a decree against lay investitures, or the investing of spiritual persons with the ensigns of their rank by laymen. The ring and crosier were, it was said, the emblems of a power which monarchs could not bestow; and though the estates of the church might be temporal, yet, by their inseparable union with the spiritual office, they might be regarded as partaking of its sanctity.

The pope, after long treating with the disaffected party in Germany, saw he might advance a little, and he summoned Henry to appear at Rome. Henry was enraged: he assembled at Worms a number of bishops and other vassals, and had a decree passed that Gregory should not be obeyed as pope. Gregory, when he heard this, summoned a council at the Lateran, excommunicated Henry, deprived him of the kingdoms of Italy and Germany, absolved his subjects from their allegiance, and commanded them not to obey him. Gregory acted advisedly in this unheard-of stretch of power. Henry's subjects rejoiced at being told that what was their inclination was also their duty: conspiracies ripened into rebellion; the bishops were terrified at the sentence of excommunication; and Henry found himself alone.

He adopted the resolution of going to Italy, and casting himself at the feet of the pontiff. In the midst of a severe winter he crossed the Alps, and travelled to the seat of the countess Matilda, at Canossa, near Reggio. Here, with naked feet, in the woollen shirt worn by penitents, he stood in the outer court for three days, exposed to the piercing cold. On the fourth, Gregory admitted and gave him absolution; but ordered him to appear at a certain time, to know whether he should be restored to his kingdom.

By this pusillanimous step Henry had disgusted his friends. He saw his imprudence, broke off the negotiation, and took to his arms: his friends rallied about him; he was victorious in Germany and Italy; and he drove Gregory to die in exile at Salerno. Urban II. and Pascal II. carried on the contest with him: they excited his children to rebellion, but gained nothing by the unnatural contest; for Henry V., who had rebelled for the popes against his father, when he ascended his throne, clung as obstinately to the right of investiture as he had done. Being on good terms with his vassals, it would not have been safe to try with him the measures which had been adopted against his father; and after a contest of fifteen years, the matter was settled by a A. D. compromise between him and pope Calixtus II. The 1122 emperor renounced the right of investing bishops with the ring and crosier, and recognised the liberty of elections; but the election was to take place in the presence of him or his officer, and he was to confer the temporalities by the sceptre. A similar contest had been carried on and was terminated in the same manner between Pascal II. and Henry I. of England.

The popes had a plausible pretext for thus seeking to free spiritual offices from lay influence. The grossest simony had been practised, and the church, as far as was possible in that age of gross superstition, thereby deprived of its sanctity. They had not the same pretext for their next measure, the injunction of celibacy. Mankind have always attached a mysterious effect to

this virtue. We find it in religious honour in Peru and in Rome. The oriental doctrines early introduced a reverence for it into the church. It gradually was extolled and enjoined; but human nature was too strong for it, and marriage was generally practised among the clergy. Leo IX. set vigorously about enforcing it: his successors followed up his measures: the laity, as might be expected, took part against the married priests, who were the most virtuous of the order; but the abuse, as it was termed, could not be removed without tolerating greater evils. It is plain what a powerful engine this was calculated to make the clergy in the hands of a pope, by detaching them from all the ties of social life, and leaving them no attachment but to their order and its head. Yet we should err if we supposed all the popes to have been profound calculators or unprincipled graspers at power. Many of them were men of eminent virtue, and few of them saw clearly the ultimate effect of their projects. The growth of the papacy was like that of a plant, the necessary effect of predisposing causes; and, in the state of the human mind in the middle ages, its progress was as natural as that of any phenomenon in the physical world.

The arms employed by the popes to effect their purpose were excommunication and interdict. By the former an individual, no matter what his rank may have been, was cut off from society; it was sinful to hold any intercourse with him, and temporal disadvantages were annexed to the sentence. But this extended only to one person. Interdict visited the crime of one, usually a sovereign, on all in any way connected with him. When a state was laid under an interdict, the churches were closed, the dead unburied, the bells silent, no sacraments administered but baptism and extreme unction. The operation of this on the minds of a superstitious people, who attached such mysterious efficacy to masses and sacraments, may easily be conceived; and few monarchs had courage to dare this last effort of pontifical vengeance.

With such arms, and at the head of such an army, the popes seemed almost secure of universal empire; and we shall soon behold their power at its very climax, but yet on the point of declension, from causes that were in operation against it.

Italy — Lombard Cities.

The principal cities in the north of Italy had, under the Lombard and French kings, been subject, with their districts, to counts, and these again to dukes. The Saxon emperors separated from them the greater part of the territory, and the authority of the count was usually confined to the town: the bishop often obtained the government. The feudal law of Italy was not so definite as that of France; there was frequent war between the vavassors and their superior lords; the cities were strong and populous; bishops were elective and not hereditary, and less bold and energetic than lay princes. From all these causes the cities gradually increased in strength and power, made war on each other, obtained charters from the emperors — became, in fact, perfectly independent. As the possessions of the rural nobility had been originally part of their territory, they reclaimed them, reduced the castles of the nobles, and compelled them to reside in the towns. Here the nobles aimed at obtaining the municipal offices, and the government was at this period chiefly in their hands. The policy of the citizens was liberal: they encouraged settlement among them. Their mutual and bitter wars and animosities were the great blemish they presented.

Germany — House of Franconia.

A.D.

On the death of Henry II. the house of Saxony 1024.
became extinct. Conrad, surnamed the Salic, a nobleman of Franconia, was chosen to succeed. This prince endeavoured to increase the power of his family by bestowing several duchies on his relatives. In his reign Burgundy was annexed to the empire. His son, 1039.
Henry III., trod in his steps: he disposed at his will of

duchies, controlled the papal power, and may be re-
A.D. garded as the most powerful and absolute of the Ger-
1056. man emperors. Henry IV., his son, was left a minor: his mother Agnes administered the government: the nobles thought the opportunity good for recovering their power; the archbishop of Mentz carried away the young king, and governed in his name: the education of Henry was neglected, and he grew up dissolute and addicted to low company, but brave and good natured. The Saxons rebelled: the quarrel about investitures broke out between the pope and the emperor. Henry was excommunicated and deposed by Gregory VII., and Rodolf duke of Swabia was raised to the throne. Henry defended his rights with vigour: Rodolf was slain in battle. The pope excited Henry's son to rebellion against him; and at the end of thirty years of continued war, in which he had fought sixty battles, the unhappy emperor sunk in death, and his body lay for years unburied, as he had died ex-
1106. communicated. Henry V., a rebel to his father, at the instigation of the holy see, was as tenacious as any of his predecessors of the right of investiture. After a long contest the matter was, as we have seen, settled by com-
1125. promise between him and the pope. With Henry V. ended the house of Franconia.

France.

997. Robert, son of Hugh Capet, neglected his father's projects for extending the royal power. His successor,
1031. Henry I., attempted to recover Normandy during the minority of William, afterwards the Conqueror, but with-
1060. out success. Philip I. took advantage of the crusades to enlarge the limits of the royal power; yet so narrow were
1108. these limits, that at the accession of Louis VI., the Fat, it was almost confined to the cities of Paris, Orleans, Bourges, and their districts; and it cost the king no little trouble to reduce the lords of Mont Lhery and other places near Paris. In the reign of this monarch properly began the wars between France and England, which lasted three centuries and a half.

England.

After the battle of Hastings, a part of the kingdom submitted, and William was crowned at Westminster. A. D 1066. In the following year he returned to Normandy: his Normans, whom he left in England, oppressed and insulted the people in the most opprobrious manner. Some commotions which ensued were crushed, but William found it necessary to return to control his new subjects. Only a part of the kingdom had, as yet, submitted, and the Conqueror's dominion extended but from the sea to the west side of Hampshire, and the north of Norfolk. It also included a part of Hereford, and Salop. William now turned his arms against the 1067. Saxons of Devonshire, who were aided by the Britons of Cornwall, and subdued them after a gallant resistance. In his first campaign against the Saxons of the north, 1068. he took Oxford, Warwick, and all the strong places as far as York. He was recalled by a rising in the south, where a son of Harold had gained a victory near Bristol. The north rose again in arms; York was re- 1069. covered; Edgar Atheling, the heir of the Saxon crown, appeared, aided by the Danes and Scots. But nothing could resist the energy of William, who now gave free course to his cruelty; and the country, from the Humber to the Tees, was ravaged with unexampled ferocity. Not a village remained from York to Durham; the same desolation was spread from the Tees to the Tyne, and the whole country continued a desert for years. During these wars many of the Saxons fled to Scotland; another portion, led by Siward earl of Gloucester, proceeded to Constantinople, and became part of the Varangian guard of the Byzantine emperors. The last stand made by the Saxons was in the fen-country of the eastern counties, where Hereward, a gallant chief, formed 1070. a camp in the Isle of Ely. The Normans were unable to overcome their resistance, till the monks of Ely, weary of privations, treacherously admitted them into their monastery. The monks were heavily taxed; the

brave Hereward was restored to his estates. The feudal system with all its burdens was now introduced, and such of the English as retained their lands were subjected to its obligations. All the dignities of the church were bestowed upon the Normans; an attempt was even made to abolish the English language, which in part unfortunately succeeded, and hence arose the mingled dialect we now speak.

Great as was the suffering caused by the Norman monarchs and their barons, it is to the tyranny of these princes that England is in a great measure indebted for her having preceded the other nations in the establishment of popular liberty and constitutional monarchy. For while elsewhere the nobles could defy the king and oppress the people, here they were obliged to call the people to their aid against the enormous power of the crown. Hence arose the dignity and influence of the commons of England.

William had three sons, Robert, William, and Henry.
A. D. To the first he left Normandy; to the second, England.
1087. William II. was an oppressive, tyrannical monarch. His brother Robert at first contested the crown of England with him, but was forced to desist from his claims. Robert was a brave, generous prince; he was inflamed with the general mania of the crusades, and he mortgaged Normandy to William for 10,000 marks, to equip him for the expedition. William earl of Poitiers and duke of Guienne made a similar agreement with him; but as he was preparing a fleet and army to go to take possession of these provinces, he was accidentally shot by an arrow, while hunting in the New Forest, for the formation of
1100. which his father had laid waste the greater part of Hampshire.

Henry on the death of his brother hastened to Winchester to secure the royal treasure, and he married Matilda, niece of Edgar Atheling, the last of the Anglo-Saxon royal family. On his return from the East, Robert claimed the kingdom; but Henry was too strong for him; and in consequence of the indolence and remiss-

ness of Robert, Henry soon afterwards made himself master of Normandy, and took his brother and confined him for life in the castle of Cardiff. Henry had a long contest with the popes about the right of investiture, and the matter was compromised as in Germany. This king had the misfortune to lose his only son. His daughter Matilda was married to the emperor Henry V.; and Henry dying without issue, she was again married to Geoffrey, son of Fulk, count of Anjou, by whom she had a son. Henry left Matilda heiress of all his dominions. A.D. 1135.

Stephen count of Blois was grandson of the conqueror, by his daughter Adela. Henry I. had greatly favoured and enriched him and his brother Henry, whom he made bishop of Winchester. On the death of Henry, Stephen hastened to England, secured the royal treasure, and was crowned. The rights of Matilda were upheld by her natural brother, Robert of Glocester, and several barons. Nearly twenty years elapsed in civil war between the two parties; the power of the crown was greatly diminished; the great barons were rapidly attaining to independence; the papal power was encroaching; and all the evils of relaxed government were felt. A compromise was at last made between Stephen and Henry, son of Matilda, to whom she had made over her rights, that Stephen should reign during his life, and Henry succeed. Stephen did not long enjoy his reign. 1154.

Spain.

In Spain the Christian states continued gradually to gain on the Mohammedan territories. Alfonso VI. of Castile and Leon had recovered from the Moslems Toledo, 1085. the ancient Gothic capital. Alfonso I. of Aragon pushed his conquests to the Ebro, and made himself master of Sa- 1118. ragossa, which he now made the capital of his dominions.

Constantinople.

We have seen Alexius Comnenus valiantly defending 1081. his dominions against the Normans. With equal wisdom and good fortune he maintained himself against the

Russians who assailed the empire in Europe, and the Seljookian Turks who pressed on it in the East. He also knew how to derive advantage from the passage over
A. D. into Asia of the formidable multitudes of the crusaders.
1118. John, the son and successor of Alexius, was also a prince of valour, ability, and magnanimity, and while he reigned he bravely defended all the frontiers of the
1143. empire. His son Manuel partook not of the noble qualities of his family, but he transmitted the empire unimpaired to his son.

The Seljookians.

The Turks had from the most remote ages led a pastoral life in the plains beyond the Oxus and Jaxartes, whence they continually made inroads into the empire of Persia. In the decline of the powers of the khalifs, they encroached more and more, and pastured their herds south of these rivers. They were encouraged by their countrymen, who were dominant at the court of the khalifs; and Mahmood of Ghizni placed several of their tribes in Khorassan. On his death, these Turks made inroads into Persia, and ravaged to the Tigris.
1038. Massood, his successor, collected an army and gave them battle on the plains of Zendecan. The Ghiznivide was defeated and driven out of the greater part of his dominions.

The Turks now proceeded to elect a king. The decision was committed to the lot of arrows; and Toghrul Beg, the son of Michael, the son of Seljook, gained the prize. Toghrul, having made himself master of Khorassan, advanced into Irak, subdued it, and then took Bagdad, where he was, by the feeble khalif, appointed vicegerent of the vicar of the prophet, and lord
1055. over all Mohammedans. The conquest of Aderbijan (Media) brought the Seljookians into contact with the Romans, who had gradually recovered their former possessions as far as the eastern frontier of Armenia, and their ambassadors appeared at Constantinople, to demand tribute and obedience. The Turkish cavalry ravaged

the country to the city of Erzeroom, and massacred 130,000 Christians; but Toghrul was not able to make any lasting impression.

Toghrul and his subjects were zealous in the faith of Islam, and he entertained the highest reverence for the successors of the prophet. He restored to his dominion Bagdad and its district; and the khalif enjoyed a degree of ease and independence to which he had been long a stranger. Yet it was with reluctance that the khalif Cayem bestowed his daughter on the Turkman shepherd, though monarch of Asia. A.D. 1063.

Toghrul was succeeded by his nephew, Alp Arslan (*Valiant Lion*). This monarch invaded the Roman empire: the conquest of Armenia was rapid; the Georgians of Caucasus offered a braver though as unavailing a resistance. The Turks penetrated to Phrygia: Romanus Diogenes, the valiant husband of the empress Eudocia, marched against them. In three campaigns he drove them beyond the Euphrates; in a fourth, he attempted the recovery of Armenia. But fortune here deserted the Roman emperor; treachery or cowardice caused the overthrow of his army; after long fighting with desperate valour, he was forced to surrender on the field of battle, and was led captive into the presence of Alp Arslan, whose magnanimity and generosity on this occasion may almost vie with that of the Black Prince to the king of France. Romanus, after the kindest treatment, was set at liberty, on condition of a large ransom and an annual tribute. Alp Arslan now turned his arms against his countrymen beyond the Oxus: the dagger of a Carismian, maddened by the severity of the sentence threatened him, pierced the heart of the Seljookian in the midst of his guards, and the remains of Alp Arslan were entombed at Merv. 1065. 1068. 1071. 1072.

Malek Shah, the son of Alp Arslan, was, in noble qualities and extent of dominion, the greatest prince of his age. The Turkman tribes acknowledged his supremacy; and from the confines of China to those of

Constantinople and Egypt his mandates were obeyed. Learning was encouraged and the calendar reformed in the reign of Malek; but the praise must be shared with his illustrious vizier, the great and good Nizam-ul-mulk, who directed the government under him and his father, Alp Arslan. At the age of ninety-three years, Nizam was disgraced; and he perished by the dagger of one of the followers of his schoolfellow, Hassan Sabah, who had just now organised the society of the Assassins. Malek did not long survive his minister, and the brief
A. D. remainder of his reign was inglorious. He died sud-
1092. denly at Bagdad, and his death was imputed to Hassan.

On the death of Malek, his empire, after the usual course of civil war among his sons, was divided, but finally reunited in the person of Sanjar, the survivor of them, and the last great monarch of the Seljookians of Persia. Sanjar ruled from Cashgar to Antioch, from the Caspian to the Straits of Babelmandel.

During the time of these princes, the power of the Seljookians was established in Room, *i. e.* Lesser Asia. Kootelmish, grandson of Seljook, had attempted to form an independent dominion in that country, but was defeated and slain. His son, Mansoor, paid tribute to Alp Arslan and Malek Shah, till, by the command of the latter, he also was put to death. His younger brother, Suleiman, would have had a similar fate but for the interference of Nizam-ul-mulk, on whose representations he was not only granted his life, but given an
1074. army, with commission to make conquest in Room. Suleiman crossed the Euphrates: soon almost the whole of Lesser Asia obeyed the Turkish sultan, who fixed his seat of empire at Nice in Bithynia: his aid was implored by rival candidates for the purple; and even Alexius Comnenus sought his support against the Normans. By treachery Antioch fell into the hands of Suleiman. Constantinople was menaced, and Alexius sent through Europe supplicatory epistles. Jerusalem was in the hands of the Turks.

Jerusalem had long been the resort of pious or zealous

Christians. In the times of the early khalifs and the first Abbassides their access had never been impeded; and Haroon-er-Rasheed had even presented Charlemagne with the keys of the holy sepulchre, perhaps of the city. The pilgrimages were advantageous to the subjects of the khalifs, as they brought money and trade to their coasts. When the Fatemites of Egypt got possession of Palestine, they were far from throwing any impediments in the way of western devotion, and it was only for a time interrupted by the mad freaks of the khalif Hakem. But Atsiz, one of the lieutenants of Malek Shah, marched into Syria, took Damascus, and reduced the province: he advanced into Egypt, and the Fatemite khalif was about to fly into Nubia before the troops, who maintained the cause of the Abbasside, when the people of Cairo and the negro guards valiantly repelled the Turks from the frontiers. But Tootush, brother of Malek Shah, now appeared, and Syria and Palestine obeyed for twenty years the house of Seljook; and the rude Turks treated with the utmost insolence and cruelty the Christian pilgrims, who now flocked to the Holy Land in greater numbers than ever.

A. D. 1009. 1076.

First Crusade.

The pilgrims filled Europe with complaints of the profanation of the sepulchre. The letters of Alexius pourtrayed the power of the Turks, and the danger of the Greek empire: Gregory VII. had already meditated the union of Christendom against Islam; Europe was full of ardent enthusiastic warriors. Peter the Hermit proposed to Urban II., the then pope, a project of leading armies into Asia, and conquering the Holy Land. A council was summoned at Placentia; it was numerously attended by both clergy and laity, and war was resolved on. Another council was held at Clermont in Auvergne, and, on hearing the exhortations of the pope and the hermit, the whole assembly cried, *It is the will of God!* and each champion devoted himself to the holy war by affixing a cross to his right shoulder.

1096.

The kingdom of heaven was promised to all who fell in the war against the infidels: the acquisition of earthly kingdoms in Asia, of whose wealth and fertility they had heard such marvels, was to crown success. Piety, curiosity, every feeling was roused: all sins were forgiven to the *crossed;* hostilities were prohibited against the states of those who warred for Christ. Robert duke of Normandy, Hugh, brother of the king of France, Raymond count of Toulouse, Godfrey of Bouillon, and his brothers Eustace and Baldwin, Stephen count of Blois, were the chief leaders, and an immense number of all ranks and ages crowded to the sacred standard. Three hundred thousand, under the guidance of Peter the Hermit, Walter the Moneyless, and others, straggled on before. In their passage through Hungary and Bulgaria part were massacred by the inhabitants, whom they pillaged; and the rest, on entering Asia, were slaughtered by the Turks. The great army followed, and poured
A. D. into Constantinople, to the dismay of Alexius, who lost
1097. no time in passing them over into Asia. When assembled before the walls of Nice, they numbered 600,000 combatants. They besieged and took that city, defeating the Seljookian Kilij Arslan in two great battles, and took every town which lay in their way to Antioch, of which city Bohemond, the son of Robert Guiscard, was made prince. Baldwin, at the call of its Christian inhabitants, passed the Euphrates, and assumed the sovereignty of Edessa.

Afdal, the vizier of the Fatemite khalif Mostaali, had recovered Jerusalem from the Turks: the crusaders were informed that they might now perform their vows, if they came unarmed, and that pilgrims would henceforth meet the good treatment they had hitherto experienced. The offer was rejected: the champions of the cross appeared before the holy city. Thirty-nine days they besieged
1099. it: on the 15th of July it was stormed: no age or sex was spared: 70,000 is said to have been the number of the victims. Various circumstances had so reduced the Christian host, that of the vast multitude that crossed

the Bosphorus but 1500 horse and 20,000 foot marched from Tortosa to Jerusalem.

Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen king by his fellow-warriors; but he refused to bear that title in the kingdom of the Son of David: the land was partitioned into fiefs, and a code of feudal regulations, called the Assizes of Jerusalem, drawn up for the administration of it. Two religious military orders were afterwards formed for its farther defence. Before the time of the crusade there had been a society for attending sick pilgrims in the hospital of St. John. Hugo des Payens, of the house of Champagne, Godfrey of St. Adomer, and seven other knights formed themselves into an order named Templars, from their house near the site of the temple of Solomon. Their vows before the patriarch were to defend pilgrims against robbers, obedience, celibacy, and poverty. St. Bernard, at the desire of the king of France and other lords and princes, drew up a rule for them. In battle they vowed to be the first in action, the last in retreat: this example was followed by the brethren of the Hospital; and a new order, the Teutonic, was soon added to these military and religious associations. The Christian empire at this period extended from the borders of Armenia to those of Egypt; but it was feeble, and encompassed by powerful enemies. Its population, though brave, was few; and its reliance, an unstable one, was on the West. A. D. 1118.

CHAP. VI.

THE PAPAL POWER AT ITS GREATEST HEIGHT.

Italy—the Popes.

From the time of Gregory VII. his successors faithfully adhered to his principle of extending the power of the holy see. After him no pope dreamed of waiting for

the imperial confirmation. It was even hinted that the emperor should, in right, be confirmed by the pope. In their intercourse with the German emperors, the pope and his legate used language respecting the imperial dignity which seemed to imply that it was a fief of the holy see; and Adrian, when granting Ireland to Henry II., spoke of all islands as being the property of St. Peter.

This last and other monarchs made a resolute opposition to the exorbitant claims of the pontiffs; but the latter knew so well how to take advantage of circumstances, and had such a well-disciplined army in the clergy, and so powerful a machine to work with in the gross superstition of the laity, that they were seldom foiled in any of their measures. The pontiff who carried his pretensions the highest, and exercised them most effectually, was Innocent III., who, of noble birth, lofty and powerful mind, and in the prime of life, ascended the papal throne in 1194. Availing himself of the embarrassments of the Saxon emperors of Germany, of the ambition and interestedness of Philip Augustus of France, and of the vices and cowardice of the infamous John, and the feebleness and folly of his son Henry III. of England, Innocent raised the papal power to a height scarcely dreamed of by his predecessors. He acquired independent sovereignty in Italy, established the control over temporal princes, and supremacy over the church.

A. D. 1194.

The popes, in consequence of real or pretended grants from Constantine, Pepin and his son, and Louis, had always laid claim to extensive dominions; but in reality they possessed hardly any. In Rome the imperial prefect and the turbulent spirit of the people held them in check, and all the little places about Rome were as independent as in the days of Romulus. The countess Matilda, the great friend of Gregory VII., had left the reversion of her large possessions to the holy see. These were the imperial fiefs of Tuscany, Mantua, and Modena, of which she had certainly no right to dispose: the re-

mainder, the duchy of Spoleto, and the march of Ancona, she held under a somewhat different title, and might appear to have more power over. However, the emperors disregarded the claims of the pontiffs, and disposed of Spoleto and Ancona as parts of the empire. Frederic 1177.
Barbarossa promised to restore them after fifteen years; but Henry VI granted them away as imperial fiefs. At his death, a disputed succession engaging the Germans in civil war, Italy was left to herself; and Innocent now put forth the claims of the holy see, and produced a true or false will of Henry VI. in its favour. The cities of these states had, like those of Lombardy, become independent, but were harassed by German partisans settled in Italy by the emperors, and they gladly put themselves under the protection of the holy see. Thus Spoleto and Ancona submitted, and, a few years afterwards, Innocent, not feeling himself strong enough to hold them, prudently granted Ancona in fief to the marquis of Este. At home he forced the prefect to swear allegiance to him, and not to the emperor, and curbed as far as he was able the spirit of the people. Thus the holy see became a temporal power.

The superiority of the pontifical over the royal power was strongly put forth by Innocent: the kingdoms of the earth were Christ's, and consequently, by the logic of those days, his vicar's; and the little, mean, selfish policy of the princes prompted them, on every occasion where they had any object to attain, to submit to and forward the pretensions of their common enemy. The submission of Henry II. cannot be blamed: he struggled nobly, and had all the world against him. The baseness of John, in surrendering his kingdom, and receiving it back as a fief, is unparalleled. Peter II. of Aragon, it is true, did the same; but with certainly a better motive — to secure it against ambitious neighbours. The pope was, in fact, become suzerain, censor, and conservator of the peace of Europe: his weapons were interdict and excommunication. These were effectual, and, when the interests of the holy see were not involved,

were often beneficially employed. Philip Augustus, for example, when in the zenith of his power, having divorced his wife, the Danish princess Ingeborg, under the pretext of consanguinity, and espoused another, Innocent, who, when his own interest was not concerned, loved social order, directed him to take back his queen. Philip demurred; France was laid under interdict, and Philip submitted. The papal thunder rolled over every kingdom in Europe, enjoining peace, and punishing public and private offences.

National churches had originally possessed a good deal of independence, and the clergy had shown every disposition to exercise a despotic power over the laity; but the popes were bent to draw all power to themselves. It had been their policy to support bishops against their metropolitans, and thereby break the power of the latter: they now prohibited any bishop to exercise his functions till he had received confirmation from the holy see. Gregory forced bishops to appear in person at Rome, to receive the pallium, and all prelates were harassed with citations thither. Legates were stationed in every kingdom, as the representatives of the popes, with extensive powers. The popes levied taxes on the clergy to an enormous extent: they assumed the right of appointing to bishoprics, and all other benefices.

The chief bases on which the papal dominion rested were, after the gross superstition of the people, 1. The canon law, originating in the false decretals of Isidore, which had been brought forth, towards the end of the eighth century, with the view of lowering the authority of metropolitans, by allowing of appeals to Rome, and forbidding national councils to be held without its consent. These decretals purported to be the decrees of the early bishops of Rome. About 1140, Gratian, a monk, published his Decretum, in which the decretals of Isidore, and the rescripts of pontiffs and decrees of councils, were arranged under heads, like the Pandects: various additions were made to this; the civil law was followed; the papal power extolled, and, in the

professors of this law, a powerful body of partisans raised for the papacy. — 2. The establishments of the mendicant orders, who by a greater strictness of manners, a professedly purer system of faith, and an abuse of the secular clergy, gained the esteem of the laity, always caught by these qualities. Devoted to the pontiffs, they were supported in return by them, and exempted from episcopal authority: for as the secular clergy became disaffected on account of the manner in which they were pillaged by the papacy, the latter was glad to raise up rivals to them. The great schoolmen, such as Thomas Aquinas, were of these orders, and they elevated the papal authority to the utmost. Two other causes increased the papal influence with princes and the great: — 3. Dispensations of marriage. The ascetic maxims, which had so early gotten into the church, extended the prohibition of marriage to the seventh degree of consanguinity: this was afterwards extended to affinity, and then to spiritual affinity, or gossipship. The royal and great families were so connected with one another, that it was difficult for them to marry without the canonical limits; and hence all the divorces we read of under this pretext, but caused by passion or ambition. Innocent III. laid it down as a maxim, that he was empowered to dispense with the law: money soon flowed rapidly into the papal exchequer, and princes looked up to their spiritual father, who could allow them to gratify their passions. — 4. The dispensing power which legitimated bastards, and released men from their most solemn oaths and engagements, on the ground that oaths extorted by violence, or injurious to the church, are not binding.

Such was the papal power when at its zenith; a power, no doubt, not unfrequently exerted for beneficial purposes, but, from its very nature, prejudicial to the best interests of man. The world never will witness such another dominion; for it is hardly within the limits of possibility that such a state of society as the middle ages presented can return.

Italy — the Lombard Cities.

The cities of Lombardy all acknowledged the superiority of the emperor. When Frederic Barbarossa ascended the throne, he claimed all the power possessed by Augustus. The independence of the Lombard cities appeared to him rebellion, and he resolved to chastise it. The injustice of Milan, which, in 1111, had taken and razed Lodi, gave him a pretext. Two citizens of the latter implored him to avenge its wrongs. He entered Italy, held a diet at Roncaglia, where complaints poured in against the Milanese. He took the field against them and their allies; but the nature of a feudal army, and the ill terms he was on with pope Adrian IV., prevented his effecting much. He assembled another army, to which almost every city of Lombardy was forced to
A. D. send its militia, and Milan was reduced to surrender.
1158. Frederic held another diet at Roncaglia, in which the cities were forbidden to make war on each other, to coin money, or levy tolls; and an imperial magistrate, called Podestà, was to administer justice with the consuls, as their own chief magistrates were styled. The Milanese were more severely treated than any others: they saw the utter destruction of their liberties was intended: they took arms; but were only aided by Crema, their Platæa. But Crema was taken and razed, and soon after Milan
1162. experienced the same fate.

The emperor now proceeded to establish the most absolute power all over Lombardy. In vain the citizens implored; they only got vague hopes of redress. But the principle of liberty was strong, and the Lombard
1167. league was secretly formed. Frederic, in his attempt to make an anti-pope, was besieging Rome; the flower of his army fell victims to the *malaria* of the autumn, and he was obliged to recross the Alps. After some years of indecisive warfare, he invaded the Milanese, and the
1176. confederates gave him battle and a signal defeat at Legnano. A truce was made through the mediation of

Venice, for six years; and at length, by the peace of Constance, the cities were reinstated in their independence, reserving the imperial superiority. A. D. 1183.

The Lombard cities were afterwards split into the Guelf and Ghibilin factions, which we shall presently explain: they generally sided with the popes against the emperors, and were continually engaged in wars with one another.

Italy — Naples and Sicily.

The family of Roger count of Sicily had gotten the regal dignity, and also the Italian dominions of the family of Robert Guiscard. William the Good was the last of these princes. Constantia, his aunt, was married to the emperor Henry VI.; but on the death of William, the nobles, who dreaded the power of Henry, raised Tancred, William's natural cousin, to the throne; and, on his death, his infant son William III. The emperor hastened over to Sicily; defeated his opponents; took the young king prisoner; led him to Germany, and there treated him with the greatest barbarity. On the birth of Frederic II., Constantia governed Sicily in his name, and on her death, the pope, Innocent III., becoming guardian to the young monarch, endeavoured to derive from that circumstance all the advantages he could for the holy see. 1130. 1186. 1189. 1194. 1200.

Germany — Swabian Line.

With Henry V. ended the male line of the Franconian emperors. Frederic duke of Swabia, grandson, by his mother, of Henry IV., had inherited their estates. But the princes were anxious to make the crown really elective, and many, besides, entertained a strong dislike to the late emperor. The crown was, therefore, bestowed, with some opposition, on Lothaire duke of Saxony. As chief of a nation the bitter enemies of the house of Franconia, Lothaire did every thing in his power to depress Frederic and Conrad of Hohenstauffen, the heads of the Swabian family, and to secure the 1125.

empire for his son-in-law, Henry the Proud, duke of Bavaria, descended from Welf, fourth son of Azzo, marquis of Este, by Cunegonde, heiress of the Welfs of Altorf in Swabia. Henry also possessed, through his mother, Luneburg, the patrimony of the Billungs, the ancient dukes of Saxony; and by his marriage with the only child of Lothaire he got Hanover and Brunswick, the patrimony of Henry the Fowler, and Lothaire added
A. D. the duchy of Saxony.

1138. But the extent of his possessions was prejudicial to Henry. On the death of Lothaire, Conrad of Swabia was hastily elected by the partisans of his house, and the Saxon party was forced to submit. Conrad, taking advantage of the jealousy caused by the large possessions of Henry, pretended that two duchies could not legally be held by one person, and summoned him to surrender one of them. Henry refusing, the diet pronounced both to be forfeited, and Henry was speedily stripped of all he possessed. The factions of the Guelfs and Ghibilins date from this period: the former, from Welf, denote the partisans of the house of Saxony; the latter, from Wibelung a town in Franconia, whence the emperors of that line sprang whom the house of Swabia was held to represent. As the latter possessed the imperial dignity when these names were transmitted to Italy, the Ghibilins there were the partisans of the emperor, the Guelfs those of the pope and his other opponents.

1152. Conrad III., when dying, though he had a son, recommended to the electors his nephew, Frederic duke of Swabia, surnamed Barbarossa (Red-beard), and he was elected emperor. Frederic was an able, politic prince. His contests with the cities of Lombardy we have already noticed, in which the triumph of liberty over power was
1159. glorious and complete. At Rome the opposite factions had elected two rival popes, Victor IV. and Alexander III. Frederic sided with the former; the kings of France and England, and the Lombard cities, with the latter. After the battle of Legnano the emperor was forced to acknowledge Alexander, by kissing his

feet, and holding his stirrup as he mounted his mule — new inventions of the servants of the servants of Christ.

The emperor Conrad had restored Saxony to Henry the Lion, son of Henry the Proud. Bavaria had been bestowed on the margraf of Austria, Henry's guardians having renounced it in his name. He now applied to Frederic, who was his first cousin, and whose life he had saved at Rome, to have it restored. Frederic complied with his desire, and they lived for several years in harmony. But when the emperor was leading into Lombardy the army which was defeated at Legnano, Henry, prompted by jealousy or ambition, refused to assist. On his return, Frederic summoned him to answer charges in a diet. Henry refused compliance, and his possessions were confiscated and shared among his enemies. He now implored the emperor's mercy, who advised him to retire to England till the present possessors could be prevailed on to relinquish them. The duke passed three years at the court of his father-in-law Henry II., and at length his allodial estates of Saxony were restored to him. Fifty years after, these were made imperial fiefs, and became the two duchies of Brunswick, whose dukes are the representatives of Henry the Lion, and inherit the name of Guelf.

A. D. 1156. 1181.

Saladin having now taken Jerusalem, a crusade was preached. Frederic took the cross, and passed over to Asia with a large army; but, bathing on a hot day in a cold mountain-stream, like Alexander in the Cydnus, in the same vicinity, he caught a disorder, and died in the 69th year of his age.

1188.

Henry VI., the Severe, succeeded his father. The power of Henry was so great in Germany, that, but for the vigorous opposition of the Saxons, he would have made the empire hereditary in his family. His short reign was chiefly occupied in making himself master of Naples and Sicily, where he exercised the most atrocious cruelty against his opposers.

1190.

Frederic II. was but two years old at the death of his father. Though Henry had had him elected, a strong

1198.

party of the princes, backed by Innocent III., who wished to reduce the house of Swabia, showed a disposition to retract. Philip duke of Swabia, brother to the late emperor, unable to secure the succession of his nephew, got himself chosen by one party; the other chose Otho, son of Henry the Lion. A civil war ensued, in which Philip was victorious, and drove Otho out of Germany; but being shortly afterwards assassinated by the count palatine of Bavaria, Otho IV. returned, married the daughter of Philip, and was crowned at Rome, resigning the inheritance of the countess Matilda to the holy see. But Otho, feeling himself strong, revoked his concessions, and the pope supported Frederic II., now grown up, against him. Otho was gene-
A. D. rally deserted, except by his Saxons, and Frederic was
1215. crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. Otho's death in 1218 left the young emperor at peace in Germany.

But it was in Italy that Frederic passed the greater part of his reign. On his accession to the imperial dignity he had taken the cross. The pope was continually urging him to perform his vow; but, engaged in improving and benefiting his Neapolitan and Sicilian dominions,
1226. he neglected to comply. Honorius III. threatened to excommunicate him, but Frederic despised the threat. He and the pope were afterwards reconciled. Gregory IX. having declared him incapable of the imperial dignity for his disobedience, Frederic ravaged the patrimony of
1228. the church. He was then actually excommunicated, and the usual course of bloodshed, poisoning, war, and assassination took place in Italy. At length Frederic resolved to perform his vow; but the pope prohibited his departure till he should be absolved. Frederic went in contempt of the church, and was more successful than any of the preceding crusaders, for Jerusalem and its
1230. territory were ceded to him by the sultan of Egypt.

The remainder of Frederic's reign was a continued struggle with the holy see. All Italy was split into the Guelf and Ghibilin factions; the pope preached a crusade against Frederic, and excited the Lombard

cities to war, and his son Henry to rebellion against him; but the emperor was every where successful. The succeeding pontiffs, Celestine IV. and Innocent IV., followed up the measures of Gregory. On the death of Henry, who had been king of the Romans, the German bishops, by the direction of Innocent, who had deposed Frederic, elected Henry landgraf of Thuringia, and, on his death, William count of Holland. Fortune was now adverse to Frederic; he was defeated before Parma, and, retiring to Naples to raise an army, he there died of a fever, in the 57th year of his age. Frederic was a prince of great endowments, and a zealous patron of learning. A. D. 1245. 1248. 1250.

Conrad, son of Frederic, and his rival William, did not survive many years. Richard duke of Cornwall and Alfonso X. of Castile, were chosen by opposite parties of the electors; but for twenty-three years there may be said to have been an *interregnum*, and the empire without a recognised head. During this period, the cities on the Rhine entered into a league for mutual defence in their commerce. A few years before, the northern cities had entered into the celebrated Hanseatic league for a similar purpose. 1255. 1241.

France.

Louis VII., the Young, contrary to the advice of his wise minister the abbé Suger, undertook a crusade with the emperor Conrad III. Both were equally unsuccessful. Eleanor, queen of Louis, had accompanied him; but having had an amour with a young Turk, Louis, on his return, divorced her, and resigned the rich territories he had obtained with her. Henry II. of England then married Eleanor. 1147. 1149.

Philip II. Augustus, son of Louis VII., was the ablest monarch France had seen since Charlemagne. He raised the crown of France from the state of degradation it had been in, by reuniting to it several of the great fiefs. He took from the count of Flanders the Vermandois and Artois. When John of England had mur- 1180.

dered his nephew Arthur, Philip summoned him as his vassal to be tried by his peers, and, on his not appearing, he seized on Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, which were never restored to the English crown. Philip had accompanied Richard I. to the Holy Land, and his be-
A. D. haviour to that prince does his memory little credit.

1223. Louis VIII. had, during the lifetime of his father, been invited over to England against king John by the barons, who offered him the crown. He met in that expedition but slender success. On coming to the throne, he attempted the conquest of the remaining dominions of the English kings in France, made himself master of Poitou, and was on the point of subjecting Guienne, when he was drawn away to Languedoc, where the

1208. pope had preached a crusade against the Albigeois, and Raymond count of Toulouse who protected them. More than the usual quantity of blood had been shed and devastation committed by the pope's warriors, led on by the fanatic hypocrite Simon de Montfort. This chief was now dead; but the pope was unrelenting, and Louis VIII. was called on to take the cross against the son of Raymond, and he gave up the conquest of Guienne for this purpose. But he died after a short though successful war.

1226. Louis IX., St. Louis, was only twelve years old on the death of his father; but his mother, Blanche of Castile, governed during his minority with wisdom and vigour. The great vassals made several attempts to recover their former independence; but the address of the regent always triumphed over them. When Louis came of age, he fully displayed his estimable qualities. Such were the moderation and justice of this good king, that, so far from encroaching on his neighbours, he even made restitution of what they had been unjustly deprived of. He restored to Henry III. a great part of what he had lost in France, and he always sought to mediate between that prince and his barons. Louis administered justice personally to all who sought it; and he drew up his Establishments, the first code compiled by the Capetian

family. The sole blemishes of this excellent prince's character were, his too great deference for his mother, and his superstition, which last led him to undertake two crusades, in one of which he lost his army, and was made prisoner; in the other he expired on the torrid coast of Africa. Yet France has surely reason to be proud of St. Louis; for a monarch his equal has rarely adorned any throne.

A. D. 1248. 1270

England — the Plantagenets.

Henry II., son of Matilda, daughter of Henry I., and of Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou, inherited by his mother England, Normandy, and the feudal superiority over Britany; by his father, Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; and, by marrying Eleanor, heiress of Guienne and Poitou, whom Louis VII. had divorced, he became master of these extensive provinces. He was young, brave, talented, amiable, and ambitious, a formidable rival to the king of France. Henry gave the feudal system a blow, by substituting, in the beginning of his reign, the practice of levying a *scutage*, or tax on each knight's fee, instead of personal service, and with that money paying a mercenary army. He sought to check the encroachments of the papacy, by procuring the *Constitutions of Clarendon* to be passed, by which the permission of the king was made requisite to the taking effect of any papal act, and for appeals to Rome; and the clergy were to be tried for their crimes in the lay courts. The king's chief opponent was Thomas à Becket, whom he had made archbishop of Canterbury, and the contest ended in the murder of that violent but sincere prelate. Henry invaded and partly conquered Ireland. The latter part of his reign was spent in opposing the rebellions of his own sons, actuated by the king of France. Henry II. was perhaps the ablest king that ever sat on the throne of England.

1157. 1164. 1170.

Richard I. succeeded, as his brother Henry had died before his father. The reign of this monarch was almost wholly occupied by his crusade to Palestine with Philip

1189.

of France. In the East he performed prodigies of valour; but, on his return, was seized and imprisoned by the duke of Austria. He was ransomed by his subjects, but soon after died of a wound he received before the petty fortress of Chalus. Military skill and valour formed the most conspicuous part of Richard's character.

A. D. Hence he was named Cœur-de-Lion, *Lion-hearted.*

1199. John was nominated successor by his brother Richard; but Geoffrey, duke of Britany, an elder brother, had left a son named Arthur. As John was detested, the claims of Arthur were put forward; and the barons of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine declared for him, backed by the king of France. John afterwards, happening to take his nephew, stabbed him with his own hand. For this crime the king of France, as superior lord, summoned him to answer before his peers. On his not appearing, his fiefs were declared forfeited, and Philip entered and took possession of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, which were thus united for ever to the French crown. John now quarrelled with the pope, the intrepid Innocent III.: his dominions were laid under interdict, himself deposed, and his kingdom bestowed on the king of France. The

1213. pusillanimous John submitted to hold his dominions as fiefs of the holy see, to do homage for them, and to pay 1000 marks of silver annual tribute. His subjects, despising and detesting him, seized this occasion for restraining the enormous prerogative of the crown. At the instigation of the primate Langton, the barons took

1215. arms, and forced the king to sign, at Runnymead, the *Magna Charta*, the great charter of liberty of all ranks of the people. Some time after, having taken into pay a body of mercenary troops, John attempted to annul the great charter. The barons in their despair offered the crown to Louis, son of the king of France, who invaded England; but John dying, the barons returned to their allegiance, and crowned his infant son Henry. The character of John may be summed up in the words of the Roman satirist, *Monstrum a vitiis nullâ virtute redemptum.*

A.D.

Henry III. being but nine years old, the government 1216.
was administered by the earl of Pembroke, mareschal of England, and a new charter of liberties was granted, which conciliated all orders. As Henry grew up, the defects of his character became apparent: he was weak, inactive, and, imprudently attached to his relations and to foreigners, he heaped riches and estates upon them with the most lavish prodigality: for a share of the spoil, he concurred in the monstrous exactions of the court of Rome, which attained their height in this reign. The foolish king, being offered by the artful pontiff the crown of Naples for his second son, lavished great sums of money in that wild project. The barons were incensed at all his acts of folly and injustice; they forced him to renew in the most solemn manner the great charter; but hardly had the weak monarch sworn to ob- 1255.
serve it, when he was induced by his favourite to transgress it as before. Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, himself a foreigner and son of the general in the crusade against the Albigeois, called on the barons to take arms in defence of their rights thus trampled on by the king's foreign favourites. The barons appeared in arms in the next parliament, the king was terrified, and submitted; the *Provisions of Oxford* were made, 1258.
and unlimited power was given to twenty-four barons, with Leicester at their head, to reform the state. This body, like the decemvirate of old, sought to make itself the absolute terror of king and people: the tide of popularity turned against it; the pope released Henry and his subjects from their oaths to it, and the king resumed his 1262.
authority. Leicester, who had left the kingdom, returned: his party was still strong, especially in London and the towns; he formed an alliance with the Welsh, and had recourse to arms. At the battle of Lewes the king was 1264.
taken prisoner, and his son, prince Edward, giving himself in exchange for him, Leicester detained both. Edward afterwards escaped, and defeated and slew Leicester at the battle of Evesham, and put an end to the civil war. 1265.
The poor old king passed the rest of his days in peace.

His reign was longer than that of any English king except George III. In this reign the house of commons
A. D. dates its origin; Leicester, in the 49th year of the king,
1265. previously to a parliament being held in London, having issued writs to the sheriffs, directing them to return two knights from each shire, and two burgesses from each city or town.

Ireland.

Ireland was originally peopled by a portion of the Keltic race, who we may suppose passed over to it from Britain. It had always been divided into little independent states. The manners of the people were like those of all others in the same condition of society. Everlasting petty warfare, murder, abduction, and similar acts of violence were exhibited. It had been converted pretty early to Christianity by Patricius, a native of Britain. Like its neighbours, it was exposed to the ravages of the Northmen, who, invincible there as every where else, had conquered a part of the country. Henry II. had cast an eye of cupidity upon it; and the pope Adrian IV., as the Irish church was not remarkable for obedience, readily, in the plenitude of his power, conferred the dominion of it on the English monarch. An occasion for interposing soon occurred. Dermot M'Murrough, king of Leinster, carried off the wife of O'Ruarc of Breffney (Leitrim and Sligo): the latter applied to Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught, the chief of the five provincial monarchs, and Dermot was defeated and chased out of his dominions by their united forces. He repaired to Henry II., then in Guienne, and sought his aid, offering to acknowledge himself his vassal. Henry, being then engaged, gave him letters, empowering any of his English subjects who pleased to engage in the enterprise. Richard earl of Pembroke, surnamed *Strongbow*, and some other adventurers, embarked in the enterprise; and though their numbers were small, such was the superiority of their arms and their skill, that they overpowered all resist-

ance. Henry himself appeared in Ireland, and received the homage of its princes. But the conquest was merely nominal; and ages elapsed before Ireland was really subdued. It is, perhaps, not unworthy of observation, that the king of England invaded Ireland in defence of adultery, and by virtue of a recognition of the power of the pope to dispose of kingdoms. So little scrupulous about means is ambition, so heedless of remote consequences!

A. D. 1172.

Spain.

Malik-en-Nasir Mohammed, the Almohade prince of Morocco, crossed the sea with 160,000 warriors, and he was joined by the Moors of Andalusia. On the Navas de Tolosa, near Ubeda, his army was engaged (July 16.) by the united force of the Christian states of the peninsula, under Alfonso IX. of Castile; and the victory of that day established the superiority of the Christians for ever. St. Ferdinand, grandson of Alfonso, united Castile and Leon. He conquered Baeza and Cordova, and, eighteen months afterwards, Seville, in which last he fixed his residence. Cadiz was soon obliged to submit; and the Moors were now confined to Granada.

1212

1236.

1250.

James I. of Aragon, called the Conqueror, drove the Moors out of the Balearic Isles, and conquered the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, the latter of which he gave, according to agreement, to the king of Castile.

1229.

1238.

Portugal.

Henry, a knight of the house of Burgundy, having distinguished himself at the siege of Toledo, Alfonso gave him his daughter in marriage, and the government of the conquests of the kings of Leon in the mountains to the west. Henry settled himself at Guimaraens, whence he continually harassed the Moors, and conquered the city of Porto. His son, count Alfonso, emulated his military fame, and conquered Alemtejo. The Moorish princes collected all their forces on the plains of Ourique. The troops of Alfonso were greatly in-

1095.

1112.

1139.

ferior in number; but a hermit comforted him by a vision, and the faith of the leader was communicated to his soldiers. The Moors were totally routed, and Alfonso was saluted king of Portugal by his army on the field of battle. Sancho, son of Alfonso, was valiant as his father. With the aid of some crusaders from
A. D. England and Holland, who put into the Tagus, he
1147. took the strong city of Lisbon, which he made his capital. The laws of Lamego were passed in this reign.

The Almohades.

A. D. A man, named Mohammed, being driven out of Mo-
1119. rocco, where he professed to preach Islam in greater purity, having, with the aid of his disciple, Abd-el-Moomen, a young man at Tremessen, persuaded the Berbers that he was himself the Mehedee, or doctor of the law, who, he preached, was to be sent to purify the faith, assumed the title of Mehedee, and at the head of his followers waged war successfully against Ali, the Almoravide king of Morocco. His followers were called Almohades. He fortified the city of Tinmal, on an elevated and inaccessible position on Mount Atlas, and made it the seat of his dominion. They were called to the defence of the Zeïrides, against Roger of Sicily, and relieved them. Abd-el-Moomen now laid siege to Morocco; the Almoravides defended it with their usual spirit; 100,000 lives were consumed in the siege; the Almohades took the city, and extended their dominion from the deserts of Barca to the Atlantic. They passed
1147. over to Spain, and conquered the Almoravide dominions in that country.

Persia.

During the decline of the house of Seljook, a number of petty princes, governors of provinces, and others, made themselves independent. The title of these princes was Atta-beg*; they ruled over Aderbijan, Fars, and

* Atta-beg signifies *father-prince*, and was the title assumed by those who, like the mayors of the palace, under the Merovingian line in France, governed under the name of some legitimate prince.

Laristan, and each line of Atta-begs presents the uniform character of eastern rule. These dynasties, with that of the Assassins, established about the end of the eleventh century by Hassan Sabah, were gradually overthrown, some by the sultan of Khowaresm, and all finally terminated by Hulagoo, the grandson of Chingis Khan.

Saladin.

A vizier of the feeble Fatemite khalifs called on Noor-ed-deen Mohammed, attabeg of Moussel, who had conquered Syria, to come to the support of the Fatemite empire. The Turks sent by him under Sheerkoo conquered Egypt. The army made Saleh-ed-deen (Saladin), nephew of Sheerkoo, governor, on the death of his uncle, and Noor-ed-deen confirmed him in his office. Saladin, who was a Koord by nation, placed himself on the throne of the last Fatemite khalif; and founded his dynasty, called the Ayubides. He conquered Syria from the family of Noor-ed-deen. He also reduced the Happy Arabia, and extended his dominions westwards as far as Tripoli. He now turned his arms against Jerusalem. He entered the country at the north; and as he was besieging Tiberias, Guy de Lusignan, with all the forces of his kingdom, came against him. Saladin surprised them, cut them to pieces, and took Guy prisoner. All the cities submitted at his approach; and on the fourteenth day of the siege Jerusalem opened her gates. The conqueror acted with the greatest mildness; the Christians were left in possession of the holy sepulchre; and egress was given to all for a moderate ransom.

A. D. 1171. 1187

The news filled Europe with consternation: a crusade was preached, and a large army collected, which sailed for the Holy Land, under Richard I. and Philip Augustus. But the genius and resources of Saladin, and the discord of the confederates, prevented the accomplishment of its objects. Saladin died, in his 57th year, at Damascus, 1193. The virtues of this prince have been alike celebrated in Europe and Asia.

The Mamelukes.

Malek-el-Adel, the brother of Saladin, dispossessed his children of the dominions of their father. After ascending the throne he resigned it to his own sons. In the reign of Malek-el-Moattam, the last of the descend-
A.D. ants of Malek-el-Adel, St. Louis undertook the crusade
1249. in which he and his army were made prisoners in Egypt. The sultan released them for a heavy ransom, and the towns that had been taken.

The Mamelukes (guards formed by Saladin from his Turkish slaves), who had long felt their own power, and whose commanders were offended at any measure of importance being taken without their consent, were highly
1250. incensed at this peace. They murdered the sultan, and set in his place one of their own commanders, Az-ed-deen Aybeg. They then arranged the government, so that the sultan and vizier should consult the emirs in all matters of importance; that there should be a great cadi, and a cadi for each of the four orthodox sects of Islam, to administer justice. Their numbers were kept up by supplies from their native country; and for two centuries and a half the Mamelukes ruled over Egypt. Rarely a son lived to succeed his father: often a favourite slave or a brave soldier was seated on the vacant throne.

Constantinople.

1183. Alexius, the young son of Manuel Comnenus, was murdered by his relative Andronicus, who reigned two
1185. years, and was then dethroned and put to death by Isaac Angelus. Isaac, a prince of some good qualities, was
1194. robbed of the empire, and blinded by his own brother, Alexius III. His son Alexius fled to the West to seek for aid; and as the fourth crusade was then preparing to set out for Asia, he persuaded its commanders to assist in restoring his father to his throne, engaging, in case of success, to supply them with provisions, and to pay them a large sum of money. His offers were accepted. Con-

stantinople was taken, Isaac released, and his son, Alexius IV., placed on the throne. Alexius and his father were murdered by his cousin, named Murzufle (Alexius V.). Under the pretext of avenging Alexius, the crusaders took and plundered the city, and placed Baldwin count of Flanders on the vacant throne, assigning him a fourth of the empire, and dividing the remainder among themselves. A. D. 1204.

Three states were formed by the Greeks. Theodore Lascaris, son-in-law of Alexis III., established himself in Nice, and, under the title of emperor, governed a great part of Lesser Asia. One of the Comnenian family settled at Trebisond, on the eastern end of the Black Sea, and was also styled emperor. Another Comnenian, of the family of Angelus, ruled, under the title of despot, over a principality in Epirus, Ætolia, and Thessaly.

Baldwin reigned but one year; he was taken prisoner and cruelly put to death by the Bulgarians. His brother and successor, Henry, an abler prince, died by poison. The throne then came to his brother-in-law, Peter de Courtenay, grandson of Louis VI., and his children. 1205. 1216.

John Lascaris and his son governed their Asiatic empire with prudence and valour. His grandson, of the same name, came to the throne a minor, and was murdered by Michael Palæologus, one of whose generals retook, in one night, the imperial city, which the Latins had held but fifty-seven years. 1261

The Crusades.

The kingdom of Jerusalem was continually harassed by its Mohammedan neighbours in Syria and Egypt. The formation of the orders of the Templars and the Hospitallers, and the constant accession of volunteers from Europe, enabled it to resist its enemies; and prodigies of valour equal to any in romance were achieved by the warriors of the cross. But in less than half a century after the conquest, the state of Edessa having been subdued by the attabeg of Moussel, more powerful

aid was deemed requisite, and St. Bernard preached a new crusade. At his persuasion, the cross was assumed
A. D. by Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany.
1147. The number of all ranks engaged in this crusade is estimated at 300,000. The Germans went first, and the same ravages which had disgraced the first crusade occurred also in this. The Greek emperor, Manuel, was terrified at their numbers, and employed artifice to get rid of them. They passed over; and the imprudence of Conrad caused him to march into the
1148. heart of Lesser Asia, where his troops were cut to pieces by the sultan of Iconium. Conrad fled to the French army, and then returned to Constantinople. Louis pursued his march: near Laodicea he sustained a partial defeat; but he reached Antioch, and thence proceeded to the Holy Land, and he and his troops aided at the unsuccessful siege of Damascus.

1187. When intelligence arrived in Europe of the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin, the utmost grief and indignation prevailed; and Clement III. ordered a crusade to
1188. be preached every where. The emperor, Frederic Barbarossa, assembled a diet at Mentz, where he and his son Frederic, and the greatest of the German nobles, took the cross. The same was done by Richard I. and Philip Augustus. It was not now, as in the first crusade, piety that actuated these kings and nobles, — that motive had given place to the passion for military fame and glory.

The emperor, on marshalling his forces, found them to amount to 100,000 fighting men, care having been taken to keep off the beggarly rabble which had attended the former expeditions. He marched through Hungary into the Greek territories, where the emperor, Isaac Angelus, harassed the crusaders as far as he was able. Frederic laid the country under contribution, cut to pieces the Greek troops, and made the emperor sue for peace. He wintered at Adrianople, passed over to Asia in spring, defeated the Turks in several battles, took Iconium, and crossed Mount Taurus. But coming on

a sultry day (June 10th) to the Selef, a gelid mountain-stream, he threw himself into its waters, and was unfortunately drowned. A. D. 1190.

Richard of England, Philip of France, Henry count of Champagne, Thibaut of Blois, Philip of Flanders, and numerous other princes and nobles, collected their forces on the plain of Vezelay, and found them to 1190. amount to 100,000 fighting men. Aware of the evils that had attended the former land expeditions, they resolved to convey their forces by sea. Richard led his troops to Marseilles, Philip his to Genoa, where they embarked. The appointed place of rendezvous was Messina; and while they stayed there, various incidents occurred to excite jealousy and disunion between the monarchs. Driven by a storm to the isle of Cyprus, Richard deposed, for his cruelty to the crews of some of his ships, Isaac Comnenus, who tyrannised over the island, and sold the sovereignty of it to Guy de Lusignan, the king of Jerusalem, in whose family it continued for three hundred years.

An army of Christians, aided by the slender remains of that of the emperor Frederic, was besieging Acre, or Ptolemais. After a heroic resistance, it was forced to surrender to the emulative valour of Richard and Philip. But the latter, instead of pursuing this success, jealous of the superior fame of the English monarch, returned to Europe, under the pretext of ill health, leaving a part of his troops, under the duke of Burgundy. The siege of Ascalon was now resolved on. The Christian army marched along the sea-coast: Saladin collected all his strength to oppose them: a bloody and well-contested battle took place. Nothing could resist the valour and impetuosity of Richard; 8000 of the 1192. Moslems were left dead. Ascalon and Joppa were razed by Saladin at their approach; the crusaders came within sight of the holy city; but the fickle king of England was weary of the war, and anxious to return home. A truce was concluded with Saladin, by which the Christians were to hold Ptolemais, Joppa, and other

sea-ports, and to visit the holy sepulchre unmolested. The gallant Richard was, on his return through Germany, basely thrown into prison by Leopold duke of Austria, whom he had offended at Ptolemais.

A. D. 1202. The fourth crusade was composed of French and Germans, led by Baldwin count of Flanders. The Venetians furnished ships. Its first efforts were directed against the city of Zara in Dalmatia, which had revolted from Venice, and, in spite of the pope's excommunication, it was reduced. The arms of the faithful were now directed against Constantinople, which, as we have

1204. seen, they took, placing their leader on the throne. In the partition, Venice got the islands and the Morea, the marquis of Montferrat Thessaly, Ville Hardouin (the historian of this conquest) Achaia, and Otto de la Roche, a Burgundian, became duke of Athens.

1216. The fifth crusade was chiefly composed of Germans and the neighbouring people; Andrew II., king of Hungary, was its commander. The main body marched to Italy, to embark in its ports; others sailed from the ports of Saxony, and, being driven by a storm into Lisbon, were prevailed on by Alfonso II. to assist him against the Moors. The king of Hungary and his troops, with the king of Cyprus, landed at Ptolemais, where John de Brienne, the titular king of Jerusalem, gladly received them. They attempted in vain to take Tabor; were obliged to divide for subsistence; the king of Cyprus died, and the king of Hungary found it necessary to return home. On being joined by the fleet from Portugal, it was resolved in council to besiege Damietta, in Egypt. An army, led by the sultan to its

1219. relief, was defeated. The duke of Austria and his forces now returned home; but a reinforcement arrived, under the cardinal Albano, to whom, as the officer of the pope, John de Brienne was obliged to resign the command, and the military priest injudiciously led his army between two branches of the Nile, at the season that river was beginning to overflow. The sultan opened the sluices and burned the ships of the Christians, who were forced

A. D.
to restore Damietta, and bind themselves not to serve for 1221.
eight years against the sultan.

The emperor Frederic II., who had long promised, 1228.
at length sailed to the East. He did not spill any blood; but he made an advantageous treaty with Malek-el-Kamel, sultan of Egypt, who ceded to him Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and all the villages between the former place and Jaffa, and Ptolemais.

The Khowaresmians, flying before the Mongols, had 1244.
poured down on Lower Asia, and had seized on Syria and Palestine. St. Louis, having in a fit of sickness vowed a crusade, he collected a fine army, and sailed for the East. He resolved to commence by reducing Egypt, and landed at Damietta, which was abandoned to him. But his troops were wasted by sickness, and defeated at Massoor, where his brother Robert of Artois was killed at his side, and himself, his two brothers, and all his chief nobility taken prisoners. At the price of a large ransom and the city of Damietta they were set at liberty. 1250.

Twenty years afterwards, this excellent monarch, 1270.
whose only defect almost was superstition, sailed with another expedition for the Holy Land; but hearing that the king of Tunis was inclined to embrace Christianity, he directed his course thither. Finding the intelligence to be false, he laid siege to the city; but he here caught a fever and died, and with him died the spirit of the crusades. Edward, son of our Henry III., revived the fame of Richard; but the Latin power gradually declined, and Acre, its last seat, fell to the sultan of Egypt. 1291.

The crusades, though originating in folly and superstition, and productive of a large quantity of positive suffering to both Europe and Asia, have, in the order of Providence, been also productive of good. They awoke the mind of Europe from its slumber of ignorance and barbarism, by bringing it into contact with the more polished nations of the East; they enlarged the sphere of ideas, gave a taste for elegance and refinement, extended navigation and commerce, and thereby increased the wealth and power of cities; they diminished the

property and influence of the factious and tyrannic nobles, and enlarged the authority of monarchs. The degree of intercourse that prevailed between Europe and Asia, during the period of the crusades, was far beyond what we usually conceive. It has not become adequately known until very recently.

The Mongols — Chingis Khan.

In the ancient country of this race, a great khan who had ruled over 30,000 families on the banks of the Selinga had died, leaving his son Temujin a child. The horde separated, and Temujin, when he grew up, found only thirteen families adhering to him. He distinguished himself by valour, talent, and generosity. In an assembly of the nation on the Selinga, one of their wise men arose and said, he had had a vision, in which he saw the great God of heaven sitting on his throne in council, and heard sentence given that Temujin should
A.D. 1206. be Chingis Khan, i. e. *Greatest Khan.* The Mongols raised their hands, and swore to follow their Chingis Khan whithersoever he went.

He first invaded China, overthrew the dynasty of Song, and took Yen King, their capital. He conquered Corea, then turned westward, subdued Tibet, penetrated to Cashmeer, and to the borders of Khowaresm, whose sultan had vanquished the dynasty of Ghaur, and ruled over nearly all Persia, and a great portion of Hindostan. The sultan Ala-ed-deen Mohammed took the field at the head of 400,000 men, was defeated, and his country subdued. His son, Jellel-ed-deen Mohammed, heroically, but in vain, resisted the conquerors. The shores of the Caspian were conquered. The tsar of Russia advanced with a large army to the Calca, was defeated and put to
1227. flight. Chingis Khan gave laws and regulations to the Mongols, and died in the 64th year of his age.

The sons of Chingis, Octai, Joojee or Tooshee, Toolee, and Jagatai, and their sons, Gooyookh, Batoo, Hoolagoo, and Kublai, followed up his conquests. Resistance was
1241. every where overborne. Alexander Nevski, the Great Duke

of Russia and conqueror of Livonia, was overthrown; his successor was forced to fly to Poland, and the house of Ruric reduced to such dependence, that for two hundred years it paid tribute to the khan of the Golden Horde.

This conquest was achieved by Batoo, son of Joojce, who then led his army to the confines of Europe. Poland offered no resistance. Batoo took and burned Cracow. Bela IV., king of Hungary, gave him battle, but was utterly defeated. The Mongols advanced and burned Breslau. The emperor Frederic II. and the pope called on all Europe to aid. Crowds of volunteers joined the standard of Henry duke of Lower Silesia. A.D. The battle, one of the bloodiest ever fought against the 1242. orientals, was given at Wollstadt, near Lignitz, and lost. The whole country was deserted; but the Mongols could not form sieges, and they retired.

Kublai, son of Toolee, completed the conquest of China.

End of the Khalifat at Bagdad.

Hoolagoo, the grandson of Chingis, undertook the conquest of Bagdad. The Mongols advanced, treachery aided, and the City of Peace was taken. In the 656th 1258. year of the Hegira the 56th successor of the prophet was trodden beneath the feet of the horses of the Mongols. Bagdad was plundered during forty days, and 200,000 persons slaughtered. The strong holds of the Assassins were taken, and that sect destroyed. The Mongols took Aleppo and Damascus, and entered the Holy Land. Seif-ed-deen, the Mameluke sultan of Egypt, defeated them 1260. there, and his successor, Bibers, drove them out of Syria.

Hakem bi-emr-illah Ahmed Mostaser of the house 1261. of Abbas fled to Bibers, who received him kindly, and gave him an establishment at Cairo; and for two centuries and a half the successors of the prophet lived on the bounty of the Mameluke sultans.

CHAP. VII.

DECLINE OF THE PAPAL POWER, AND FORMATION OF GREAT MONARCHIES.

Italy — The Popes.

THE high assumptions, the intolerable rapacity, and the extreme corruption of the court of Rome, were gradually alienating from it all orders of men. The clergy were incensed at the heavy taxes imposed on them, the invasion of the rights of patronage, and the favour shown to the mendicant orders; and even some of the latter began to declaim against its corruption and vices. In this state of affairs Boniface VIII. obtained the triple crown, and, not attending to the signs of the times, endeavoured to raise the papal power to a higher point than it had yet attained, but thereby only showed its real weakness.

Edward I. and Philip the Fair began to attack the revenues of the church. The pope left the former and his clergy to themselves; but when Philip taxed those of France without their consent, Boniface issued a bull, forbidding the clergy of every kingdom to pay any thing without his permission. But the French clergy adhered to their king, and he and the pope became reconciled.
1301. Some years afterwards the bishop of Pamiers, as legate of the pope, behaved with great disrespect to the king. and, as he was his subject, Philip put him under arrest. Boniface, in a rage, issued several bulls, in one of which he asserted that the king was subject to him in temporal as well as in spiritual matters. Philip had the bulls publicly burnt at Paris, and summoned the states-general of his kingdom, who disclaimed, in the fullest manner, the temporal authority of the pope.

Boniface held a council at Rome, in which he promulgated his constitution of *Unam sanctam*, by which he

declares the church to be one body under one head, possessing two swords; one spiritual, to be wielded by the pope himself; the other temporal, to be used by kings and knights at his will, and with his permission. But the latter must be subject to the former, for every human being is in subjection to the see of Rome. He concludes another bull thus: — "Since such is our pleasure, who, by divine permission, rule the world." Finding Philip still refractory, he excommunicated him, giving his kingdom to the emperor Albert I., and was then about to absolve his subjects from their allegiance. Philip now asserted that Boniface was not legally elected, and appealed to a general council and a lawful pope. But he at the same time ventured on an act of fortunate temerity: he secretly sent into Italy a gentleman named Nogaret, who, with the aid of Sciarra Colonna, who was persecuted by the pope, seized him in the town of Anagni, whither he was gone without guards. On the third day the neighbouring gentry came to his rescue; but the haughty pontiff was so mortified at what had befallen him, that his rage brought on a fever, which A.D. terminated his days. His successor, Benedict XI., re- 1302. scinded the bulls against Philip, and thereby showed the real decline of the papacy since the days of Innocent.

Clement V., who had been archbishop of Bordeaux, 1305. removed, at the desire of the king of France, the papal chair to Avignon, where it continued under his six successors, all of whom were French, for a space of seventy years.

The Avignon pontiffs were engaged in a long contest with the emperor Louis of Bavaria, in which they asserted, that though the power of choosing an emperor had been transferred to certain electors, the popes still retained the right of approving the choice, and of receiving an oath of fealty from the emperor on his coronation. This quarrel originated in the attempts of the emperors to regain their imperial rights in Italy. In the course of the contest Louis was excommunicated, 1323. and his subjects released from their allegiance; but they

remained firm to him, and if Louis himself had acted with more vigour, he would have come off victor in the contest.

A.D. 1338. But though thus apparently triumphant over the emperor, the papal power was gradually losing ground. The diet of Frankfort positively denied all right of the pope to interfere in imperial elections. Scholastic science had inured men to thought, and they began to employ their mother-tongues as its organ: men of learning and patriotism assailed the foundations of the papal edifice, and the ballad and the tale exposed the profligacy and corruption of the church. A portion of the Franciscan friars, whom John XXII. persecuted for some follies, loudly proclaimed the pope to be Antichrist, and supported the emperor Louis. The rapacity of the papal court now passed all bounds. John XXII. imposed the tax of *annates*, or first-fruits, on all benefices, to be paid into the papal chancery: the same pontiff *reserved* to himself all the bishoprics in Christendom. Benedict XII. assumed the right of disposing of all benefices vacant by cession, translation, or deprivation. Empire had been the object of the former popes: money that of these more low-minded pontiffs.

1376. The wishes of Italy and of Europe, joined with the evils arising from absence from Rome, induced Gregory XI. to remove the papal chair back to that city. Soon

1378. after occurred the famous schism. On the death of Gregory, the cardinals, who were mostly French, assembling to elect a successor, the populace collected and insisted on his being an Italian. The archbishop of Bari, a Neapolitan, was elected, and he took the name of Urban VI. For some weeks the cardinals obeyed him; but, disgusted with the harshness of his temper, they conspired against him, and he threw several of them into prison: the rest fled to Fondi, and, with the opinion of Niccolo Spinelli, the great Neapolitan lawyer, they proceeded to a new election, under the pretext of the last having been effected by intimidation. They chose the cardinal Robert, who took the name of Cle-

ment VII., and fixed his seat at Avignon. Urban tortured and even executed some of the cardinals and prelates who were his prisoners.

Italy, Germany, England, and the North adhered to Urban; France, Spain, Scotland, and Sicily to Clement. All wished both to resign, and the cardinals to proceed to a new election; but neither party would recede. Three pontiffs succeeded Urban; Benedict XIII. was the only successor of Clement. The cardinals on both sides at last deserted their heads, and a general council was summoned to meet at Pisa. In this assembly the two pontiffs, Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII., were deposed, and Alexander V. elected; but Spain adhered to Gregory, and Benedict was supported by others, so that now there were three rival pontiffs. Another council was held at Constance, in which, under the pretext of his enormous vices, John XXIII., Alexander's successor, was deposed; Gregory submitted, and the obstinate Benedict was deposed. Otto Colonna, a man of great prudence, was elected under the name of Martin V.

A.D. 1409. 1414.

To curb the papal power, to reduce the government of the church from an absolute to a limited monarchy, was the object aimed at in the council of Constance; and it declared that a council has received, by divine right, a power in matters concerning religion, to which every other, even the papal, must submit. This council, it is to be observed, was composed not merely of bishops, like the ancient ones, but of abbots, deputies of universities, ambassadors of princes, theologians, and doctors of law. To obviate the influence of the numerous Italian bishops, the council was divided into four nations, Italian, German, French, and English, with equal rights, and the majority of the four was to decide each question. A committee of reformation was appointed; but the art of the Italians, by taking advantage of the national jealousies, prevented any thing effectual being done. Martin V., when elected, lost no time in dissolving the council.

It was decreed that another council should be held in five, a second in seven years, and then one every ten years. The first was called at Pavia, but owing to the
A.D. plague was removed to Siena, and nothing effected in it.
1433. The second was convoked to Basle; but Martin dying before it met, Eugenius IV. attempted to transfer it to Italy, where the papal strength lay. After several years' contest, Eugenius, by his prerogative, removed it, under pretext of the union he was negotiating with the Greek church, to Ferrara, and thence to Florence. But the assembly at Basle still sat, and proceeded in the work of reformation, abolishing annates, reservations, and
1439. other papal abuses. They proceeded so far as to depose Eugenius, and elect Amadeus, the first duke of Savoy, who had laid down his dignity, and retired into private life. Few states concurred in this assumption of power; the party of the fathers of Basle became weaker every day; and Nicholas V., the successor of Eugenius, easily
1449. prevailed on Felix V., as Amadeus was called, to resign. The popes ever after dreaded the idea of a general council, of which Europe has since seen but one, and that called greatly against the inclination of the pontiff. All the future popes, but one, were Italians; they learned to confine their views to Italy, where, as a temporal power, they established their influence in their own states, and engaged in the political projects of their neighbours.

A general spirit of opposition to the encroachments of Rome, and of the church in general, prevailed throughout Europe, precursive of the reformation. England in this led the way: her kings and parliaments set barriers to ecclesiastical encroachments: the tenets of Wickliff had many favourers; and parliament even went so far as to press Henry IV. to seize the temporalities of the church. Opinions similar to those of Wickliff were preached in Bohemia by Huss and Jerome of Prague; and the base act of treachery sanctioned by the fathers at Constance against the former, tended to cast an additional odium on the church.

Italy —The Republics.

In the 13th century the republics of Italy were numerous and independent. They may be regarded as forming four great clusters according to their situation. 1. Central Lombardy, containing Milan, Cremona, Parma, Pavia, Brescia, Bergamo, Piacenza, Mantua, &c. 2. The march of Verona, in which were Verona, Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso. 3. Romagna, where were Bologna, Imola, Modena, Faenza, Ferrara, &c. 4. Tuscany, containing Florence, Pisa, Lucca, Siena, &c. All of these were split into the Guelf and Ghibilin factions. In the first, Milan was Guelf, and her influence made the whole except Parma and Cremona such: in the second, Ezzelin da Romano, a nobleman of the country, to whom Frederic II. had given his natural daughter in marriage, by his talents and his merciless cruelty made the Ghibilin cause triumphant: in the third, the Guelf party predominated: in the fourth, Florence headed the Guelf, Pisa the Ghibilin party. To these we are to add the great maritime republics, Genoa on the west, and Venice on the east, and we have a view of the state of northern and central Italy.

Under their republican forms of government these cities were opulent, industrious, and powerful; but they were harassed by external and internal discord, and before the end of the thirteenth century all those of the first three classes were under the rule of *signori*, answering to the Greek *tyrants*. In Milan the Torreani and then the Visconti ruled; in Verona the Della Scala; at Ferrara and Modena the Este; at Padua the Carrara; at Mantua the Gonzaga. Of these by far the most powerful were the Visconti; and though murder, assassination, and every crime were freely perpetrated by all, none equalled them in atrocity.

Florence, like the other cities, was divided into Guelfs and Ghibilins. She had a farther division of parties, called the Neri and Bianchi. There were here, as elsewhere, powerful noble families, the Donati, Amidei,

Uberti, Buondelmonti, whose feuds filled the city with confusion and riot. The citizens were divided into *arts*, or companies of the different trades, each of which had its own council, consul, and gonfaloniere, to whose
A.D. standard all the members repaired in any commotion.
1266. The government had been in the hands of the nobles; but in 1266 it was thrown chiefly into the hands of the commons. Feuds ran high between the two orders. A new order of plebeian nobility arose, and chiefly administered the government: the people disliked both.
1336. An officer, named the Captain of Defence, was appointed with great criminal jurisdiction, but was speedily expelled
1342. for his tyranny. Soon after, Walter de Brienne, duke of Athens, was intrusted with unlimited military and judicial power, with a view to his curbing the nobility; but he aimed at the tyranny, and a conspiracy expelled him.

Though incessantly changing her form of government, Florence, from the animating influence of the principle of liberty, increased in wealth and consequence. She engaged in wars with the powers of Lombardy, and made the conquest of Prato, Pisa, and other places in Tuscany. Her wars were carried on by mercenary troops, which, under their condottieri, answered to the companies of adventure in France.

Pisa was one of the first Italian cities that was distinguished by naval armaments. In the 11th century she conquered Sardinia from the Moors, and also obtained a short possession of the Baleares: Corsica and Elba also belonged to her. Her commerce was, of course, extensive. She derived great advantage from the crusades. In 1119, war broke out between Pisa and Genoa, which lasted the greater part of two centuries. The sea-fight off the isle of Meloria, in 1284, gave the power of Pisa its death-blow. She ceased to be a maritime power, gradually declined, and at length became subject to Florence.

Genoa rose into importance coeval with Pisa. Her
1261. prosperity increased rapidly on the recovery of Con-

stantinople from the Latins, in which event she aided. Palæologus assigned the Genoese the suburb of Pera, where their colony lived in independence, under a magistrate sent from home, and they thence carried on an extensive trade with the coasts of the Black Sea, on which they erected factories, and with the inland country. Rivalry ensued between them and the Venetians: several hard-fought actions took place, particularly one in the Sea of Marmora, where the Genoese fought single-handed against the Venetians, Catalans, and Greeks. The most important was the war of Chioggia, where the Genoese, after defeating the Venetian fleet, entered the lagunes of Venice. Certain of reducing the city, the Genoese admiral, Doria, refused the most advantageous offers of peace. The Venetians, gathering courage from despair, equipped a fleet, closed up the passage of the lagunes, besieged the Genoese in the island of Chioggia, and at length obliged them to surrender. From that period dates the decline of Genoa. A.D. 1378

Like the other Italian cities, Genoa was harassed by the feuds of her nobles. The leading families on the Guelf side were the Grimaldi and Fieschi; on the Ghibilin, the Doria and Spinola. As at Florence, the nobles were reduced, and a plebeian oligarchy, the Adorni, Fregosi, Montalti, took their place. Yet it is remarkable that the Genoese fleets were almost always commanded by one of the nobles. The revolutions in Genoa were incessant. In 1339, the chief magistrate, named Doge, was first appointed.

Venice owed her origin to some citizens of Aquileia, who, in the beginning of the 5th century, fled to the islands at the mouth of the Brenta, and built the town of Rivoalto, afterwards called Venice. This town gradually increased in population and strength. Till the 10th century, it continued subject to the Eastern empire. At this time Venice made several acquisitions in Dalmatia. She very early applied to commerce, and she derived very great advantages from the crusades. On the taking of Constantinople by the Latins, in which her

fleet, under Henry Dandolo, the doge, bore a great share, she got three-eighths of the city and of the provinces, and she purchased the shares of some of the other spoilers. It was thus she obtained Candia and the Ionian isles. The trade of Venice was chiefly carried on with Syria and Egypt, and she was the great medium of conveying the productions of the East into Europe. After the war of Chioggia, Venice began to turn her thoughts towards territorial acquisitions. Before that period, the Venetians had united with Florence to check the career of Mastino della Scala, lord of Verona, and had gained Treviso. They looked on with indifference at the progress of the Visconti of Milan; but when, in the confusion that followed the death of Gian Galeazzo Visconti, Francesco Carrara, lord of Padua, had seized Verona, the Venetians, who hated that family, took arms, and reduced both Padua and Verona, and the duke of Milan ceded Vicenza to them. Venice afterwards, in alliance with Florence, against Filippo Maria Visconti, took into her service Carmagnola, the celebrated condottiere, and she acquired Brescia and Bergamo, and reached the Adda, which she never passed.

A. D. 697. The government of Venice, at first, perhaps, merely federative, had become, under its Doge, or duke, nearly an elective absolute monarchy. Limitations were gradually laid on his power, which ended in making the doge little more than a pageant, and converting the government into a jealous close aristocracy, which, with its various councils and intricate mode of election, has lasted down to near the present time.

Italy — Naples and Sicily.

1254. On the death of Conrad, son of Frederic II., his natural brother Manfred occupied the kingdom in the name of Conradin, the young heir. The Ghibilin party looked up to Manfred as their head: the pope hated him as the son of Frederic. The pope, as superior lord, offered the kingdom which Manfred had usurped to Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, who, with his

brother's consent, led thither a crusade, as it was called. A. D.
Manfred fell in the field. Conradin, afterwards attempting 1266
to recover his inheritance, was taken prisoner and judi- 1268.
cially murdered by Charles. But Constance, daughter of Manfred, was married to Peter III. of Aragon, who, in her right, claimed the crown.

Charles was master of Provence, Naples, Sicily, head of the Guelf party in Italy, and created by the pope vicar-general in Tuscany. John of Procida, one of the adherents of Manfred, was living in Valencia, watching an opportunity of revenge. The Neapolitan barons were French, or in that interest; but Sicily was treated as a conquered country, the women, after the usual manner of the French, insulted, and the indignation of the people thereby excited, which was increased by the speeches of John, who went in disguise through the island. Pope Nicholas III., adverse to the Angevin dynasty, the court of Constantinople, the king of Aragon, all entered into the project of John of Procida, and when the massacre of the French, called the *Sicilian vespers*, an utterly unpremeditated act, occurred, the fleet 1283.
of the king of Aragon was at hand, and the Sicilians gave him the crown. A war ensued, in which the king of Naples was supported by the kings of France and Castile and by the pope. Peter dying, left Sicily to his second son, James; and Alfonso, king of Aragon, made peace, engaging not to assist Sicily. James, on succeeding to his brother in Aragon, renounced Sicily; but the Sicilians transferred the crown to his brother Frederic, and maintained the war against Charles II. of Naples and the king of Aragon; and peace was at length concluded, on condition that Frederic should retain for life 1300.
the kingdom, which then should revert to the crown of Naples.

On the death of Charles II., the crown was disputed 1305.
between Caribert, the son of his eldest son Charles, who had died king of Hungary, and Robert, his eldest living son. The point was referred to the pope, the feudal lord of the kingdom, who gave sentence in favour of

Robert. The latter leaving no male issue, the crown descended to his grand-daughter Joanna. She was espoused to her cousin Andrew, son of Caribert, king of
A.D. Hungary; but the manners of this prince were brutal,
1345. and he was assassinated, an act of which the guilt was laid on the queen. Louis king of Hungary invaded Naples, to avenge the death of his brother. Joanna fled, but afterwards regained her crown. The queen had no children. The king of Hungary, and Charles duke of Durazzo, were the only male descendants of Charles I. The latter was married to the queen's niece, and was regarded by her as heir to the crown. Offended with the queen, Charles invaded her kingdom, took her pri-
1378. soner, and had her smothered in prison.

But Joanna had adopted Louis of Anjou, uncle to Charles VI. of France. He easily entered on Provence, and led 30,000 men to Naples, but he effected nothing. Charles III., now, as he thought, secure, accepted the crown of Hungary. His son Ladislaus, only ten years of age, succeeded him in Naples. The party that had called in Louis then invited his son Louis II., and put him in possession of the greater part of the kingdom. But as Ladislaus grew up, he displayed superior qualities; the Angevin barons came over to him, and he recovered the whole of the kingdom. On the death of this able prince, his elder sister, Joanna II., a weak vicious woman, came to the throne. The kingdom fell into anarchy. Sforza Attendolo, the great constable, and Ser Gianni Caraccioli, the seneschal, were the most powerful individuals. Sforza called in a pretender to the crown, Louis III. of Anjou. Caraccioli persuaded the queen to adopt Alfonso, king of Aragon and Sicily.

The successors of Frederic I. of Sicily were weak or infant princes. Maria queen of Sicily had married Martin, son of the king of Aragon, to whom, when dying, she
1409. left her crown; and on his death his father Martin, king of Aragon, had taken possession of Sicily as heir to his son.

Alfonso gladly embraced the offer of Joanna; but

jealousy of him, or some other cause, induced her to revoke her deed, and adopt Louis; and the queen's and the Angevin parties united were too strong for Alfonso. Louis dying before the queen, she substituted his brother Regnier. When Joanna died, Regnier was a prisoner in Burgundy; but his wife maintained his cause with spirit. Fortune, however, sided with Alfonso, and he founded the Aragonite line at Naples. Alfonso, having no lawful issue, was anxious to transmit Naples to his illegitimate son Ferdinand. Chiefly with this view he became a party with Sforza duke of Milan, and the A.D. republics of Venice and Florence, in the quadruple 1455. league, for the maintenance of peace in Italy; and the pope and the Neapolitan parliament confirmed the succession of Ferdinand. But the character of this prince was dark and vindictive, and the barons offered the crown to John, son of Regnier of Anjou, who made an ineffec- 1461. tual attempt to obtain it.

Germany.

After Germany had been three-and-twenty years with- 1272. out a head, the electors fixed on Rodolf of Habsburg, a prince of ancient family and of considerable possessions in Switzerland, and along the Upper Rhine. Rodolf was an able, sensible monarch, and he turned all his efforts to the establishing of peace and tranquillity within the empire. He naturally sought to aggrandise his family. The rebellion of Ottocar, king of Bohemia, gave him the disposal of Austria, Styria, and Carniola, which, with the consent of the diet, he bestowed on his 1283. son Albert, and Carinthia on Meinhard landgraf of Tyrol, whose daughter Albert married. This was the origin of the possessions of the house of Austria.

The electors refused to choose Albert king of the Romans in his father's lifetime; and on the death of 1291. Rodolf they gave the imperial dignity to Adolf of Nassau. Albert, however, raised a strong party against him, and got himself elected. Adolf fought for his dignity, 1298. but fell, as was said, by the hand of Albert. Albert was

active, ambitious, unquiet, but unsuccessful in his pro-
A. D. jects, and hated by his neighbours and subjects. He
1308. was murdered by his nephew John, from whom he with-
held his inheritance. Some of the princes are said to
have been consenting to the deed.

1309. Henry VII. of Luxemburg was elected. His reign is chiefly distinguished by his attempts to establish the imperial authority in Italy. In this he met some partial success, but died suddenly in the midst of his projects.

1314. Louis of Bavaria was chosen by one part of the electors, Frederic of Austria by another. The battle of
1322. Mühldorf finally decided in favour of Louis. This emperor also crossed the Alps to contend against the pope and Robert king of Naples; but he derived little credit from his expedition: his whole reign was occupied in the contest with the holy see.

1347. Charles IV., son of John king of Bohemia, next purchased the empire. This monarch loved pomp and parade, and lived in great splendour. He annexed
1355. Brandenburg and Silesia to Bohemia. By his Golden Bull he ascertained the prerogatives of the electoral college. He procured his son Wenceslaus to be appointed his successor.

1378. Wenceslaus was addicted to pleasure. His Bohemian
1394. nobles, thinking he favoured the people too much, confined him, under the pretext of his violence and immorality, and gave him in custody to the duke of Austria.
1400. He escaped. The spiritual electors and the palatine deposed him, and he gave a willing assent to this act, satisfied with his paternal kingdom of Bohemia.

Frederic duke of Brunswick was chosen in his stead, but was murdered immediately afterwards by his private enemies. Rupert, palatine of the Rhine, was then chosen. On his death, the choice fell on Jobst of
1410. Luxemburg, margraf of Moravia. He, too, died within a short time, and all the voices declared for Sigismund, brother of Wenceslaus, and king of Hungary.

Few princes have united more crowns than Sigis-

mund. By his first wife, Mary of Anjou, he got Hungary, Dalmatia, Bosnia: his brother left him Bohemia; the pope gave him the imperial crown, and to these he joined Moravia, Lusatia, Brandenburg, and Silesia. The chief stain on the memory of Sigismund is his violation of the safe-conduct given to Huss when going to Constance. This involved him in an eighteen years' war against Zisca, Procopius, and the other Hussite leaders. Sigismund had been engaged in war with the Ottomans, and narrowly escaped being taken by them at Nicopolis. His poverty obliged him to sell several of the imperial rights and claims. A. D. 1414. 1396.

The imperial dignity now passed to the house of Austria, there to continue. Albert duke of Austria had married the heiress of Sigismund. But the Hungarians made it a condition at his coronation that he would not accept the imperial crown. The Bohemians also made conditions with him. The electors vainly tried to induce the margraf of Brandenburg to accept the crown. At length the Hungarians gave their consent, and Albert was elected emperor; but just as he was engaging in active hostilities with the Turks, he was surprised by death. 1437 1438. 1439.

Ladislaus, the posthumous son of Albert, succeeded his father in Hungary and Bohemia. Albert's second cousin, Frederic duke of Styria, was chosen emperor. His long reign of fifty-three years occupied the most interesting part of the fifteenth century. He was an insignificant prince, yet he had influence enough to have his son Maximilian elected king of the Romans during his life; and his posterity still possess the dominions of the house of Austria, all of which were reunited in his time, or in that of his son. 1440. 1493.

Switzerland.

Switzerland formed a part of the kingdom of Arles or Burgundy, and, with the rest of the dominions of Rodolf, was united to the German empire. It contained a numerous and powerful nobility, and several rich eccle- 1032.

siastical lords. Its towns of Zurich, Basle, Berne, and Friburg rose into importance. Among the nobles, the counts of Habsburg gradually became the most powerful: they were advocates to several convents, some of which had estates in the forest-cantons of Schwytz and Underwald. The people of these cantons reposed confidence in Rodolf, the first emperor of the house of Habsburg: they distrusted his son Albert, who justified their suspicions; for, not satisfied with the rights which, as advocate to the convents, he possessed over a part of the forest-cantons, he, when elected emperor, sent imperial bailiffs to administer justice in the whole of these cantons. The people were indignant at this attempt to reduce them to servitude. Three men, Stauffacher of Schwytz, Furst of Uri, Melchthal of Underwald, each with ten companions, met by night in a secret valley,
A.D. and swore to assert the liberty of their country. The
308. three cantons rose in arms, and expelled the imperial officers. Albert was shortly afterwards assassinated by his nephew. Henry VII., the next emperor, was little inclined to strengthen the house of Austria; but Leopold, the son of Albert, led a considerable force into the mountains, and was utterly defeated by those brave pea-
315. sants at Morgarten, the Marathon of Switzerland.

Lucerne now joined the confederacy: before the middle of the fourteenth century it was augmented by the accession of Zurich, Berne, Zug, and Glaris. These eight were called the ancient cantons. Friburg, Soleure, Basle, Schaffhausen, and Appenzel afterwards became parts of the body. The same conflict as was carried on in Lombardy between the cities and the rural nobility prevailed here, and with the same results. The house of Austria sold the greater part of its possessions to Zurich and Berne. The abbot of St. Gall, and the remaining lay and spiritual lords, entered into leagues with different cantons. At the beginning of the fifteenth century, Switzerland was acknowledged as a free independent country. Their defeats of Louis XI. and the duke of Burgundy placed the Swiss as soldiers in the very first rank.

France.

A. D.
On the death of St. Louis, his son, Philip III., the 1270.
Bold, who had accompanied him, made peace with Tunis, and returned to France. Philip engaged in a war with Aragon, in defence of his uncle, Charles of Anjou's claim to Sicily; in which war he did not meet with much success. On the death of his uncle Alfonso, who had been invested with the county of Poitou, and part of Auvergne and Saintonge, and who also held in right of his wife, heiress of Raymond VII. of Toulouse, the remains of that fief, Philip reunited the whole to the crown of France.

Philip IV., the Fair, a rapacious and ambitious prince, 1285.
attempted to reunite, by force, some of the remaining great fiefs. He outwitted Edward I. of England, and got possession of Guienne, which he held for some time. He acted with similar injustice in the case of Flanders; but the total defeat of his army at Courtray by the 1302.
Flemings gave a check to his injustice in that quarter. On a sentence of forfeiture passed against the count, Philip took possession of Angoulême and La Marche; he also acquired the city of Lyons and its territory, which had been given by Louis IV. with his daughter Matilda to the king of Burgundy, and had gone with that kingdom to the empire in 1032. Frederic Barbarossa, having given all the royal rights over the city to the archbishop, St. Louis was called in as a mediator between the chapter and the city, so also was Philip III., who forced the new archbishop to take an oath of fealty to himself. At length a spirited archbishop resisted this usurpation, and Philip IV. laid siege to the city, which 1310.
submitted, and was united to the crown.

Philip the Fair was the first king who convoked the 1302.
states-general, or the representatives of the three estates of the kingdom. They were first convened to give weight to the king's cause in his dispute with Boniface VIII.; afterwards for the imposition of taxes. 1314.
The reign of Philip was disgraced by the suppression

A.D. of the order of Knights Templars, and the barbarous
1311. tortures inflicted on its most distinguished members. Philip had three sons, Louis Hutin, Philip the Long, and Charles the Fair, all of whom reigned in France; and one daughter, Isabella, married to Edward II. of England.

1314. Louis X., Hutin, survived his father but a year. He left one daughter, Jane, and his queen pregnant. Louis had possessed, by his mother, the kingdom of Navarre, and the counties of Champagne and Brie. His brother Philip assumed the regency of both France and Navarre, and then made a treaty with the duke of Burgundy, uncle of Jane, by which it was agreed, that if the queen should have a daughter, the two princesses, or the survivor, should take the inheritance of their grandmother, and renounce all right to the crown of France. But this was not to take place till they had attained the age of consent, when, if they should refuse, their *claim was to remain, and right to be done them.* Philip was meantime, as *governor*, to receive the homage of the vassals, and *govern* all these realms. In case of the birth of a male heir, the treaty was not to take effect. The queen brought forth a son, who died within four days. The treaty was now evidently become absolute, and Philip should have governed, as *regent* or *governor*, till Jane came of age to accept or refuse the contract made by her
1317. uncle. But, instead of so doing, Philip went to Rheims, and had himself crowned, though opposed by the duke of Burgundy and by his own brother Charles. He thence went to Paris and convened an assembly of prelates, barons, and burgesses of that city, who declared him their lawful sovereign. The duke of Burgundy defended the rights of his niece, till, on the prospect of a marriage with the daughter of Philip, he gave up, in her name, not only her claim to France, but her right to Navarre and Champagne. This is the first occasion on which the right of females to the crown of France was ever discussed.

A.D.

Philip died, leaving three daughters, and his brother 1322.
Charles mounted the throne. Charles, on his death, left his queen pregnant. Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip the Bold, took the regency, and on the queen bringing forth a daughter, he was crowned king. So 1328.
that the principle of the exclusion of females was now fully established. No competitor appeared in France; but Edward III. of England put in a claim in right of his mother, Isabella, sister to the last three kings. In every point of view this claim was unjust. If the Salic law was not valid, the claims of the daughters of the last three monarchs were superior to his; if it was valid, all female claims were alike extinguished. But Edward maintained that though a female could not inherit herself, she could transmit a title to her male issue; yet here again he was foiled; for, admitting this distinction, which is contrary to all rule, Jane, daughter of Louis Hutin, was married and had a son who was nearer to the crown than Edward. The English monarch, however, thought himself strong enough to make his claim good by force of arms, and he commenced that series of wars between France and England which lasted during a space of 120 years, and cost so much blood and treasure to both. In the reign of Philip the crown acquired Dauphiné, left to it by the will of the last of its princes, on condition of the king's eldest son being styled Dauphin.

After the taking of Calais by Edward a truce was con- 1350.
cluded, during which Philip died, and was succeeded by his son John, a prince in every way deserving of a better fortune than he experienced. During the captivity of John, after the unfortunate battle of Poitiers, France was in a most wretched state: the peasantry, driven to madness by the oppression and insolence of their lords, broke out into the celebrated insurrection called the *Jacquerie*, and every horrid enormity was perpetrated by 1358.
them. Charles, son of John, the regent of France, now agreed to the peace of Bretigni, and John was liberated. On some difficulty arising with respect to some of the

A.D. articles, this honourable prince returned to England to
1364. adjust them. He died while there at the Savoy palace.

Charles V., the Wise, turned all his thoughts to restoring France to her former state of power and independence. He broke the peace of Bretigni, and stripped the English of nearly all their possessions in that country. This able, judicious, and excellent monarch was,
1380. unfortunately for France, carried off by death, leaving one son, a boy of thirteen years, under the care of three ambitious uncles, the dukes of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy.

During the minority of Charles VI. the nation was dreadfully harassed by excessive taxes, which were wantonly expended. Seditions broke out at Paris and else-
1389. where, which were severely punished. When Charles assumed the reins of government, his new ministers proved equally oppressive. A few years afterwards the
1393. intellect of the king became deranged, and was never fully restored. The princes returned to power. Burgundy was at the head of affairs, but was opposed by the duke
1404. of Orleans, the king's brother. The duke of Burgundy dying, was succeeded by his son named John Sans Peur: he and the duke of Orleans were reconciled; but soon
1407. after the latter was assassinated in the streets of Paris and the duke of Burgundy avowed the deed. The queen and all the princes of the blood united against the assassin; yet such was his power, that, after making a slight apology to the king, he was pardoned, and obtained the management of affairs. The princes took arms under the father-in-law of the young duke of Orleans, the count of Armagnac, from whom their party was named. The dauphin played the two factions against each other; but he and his next brother dying, the rank fell to Charles, the king's youngest son. Armagnac, now con-
1417. stable of France, was at the head of affairs. His severity revived the Burgundian party in Paris; he made the queen, the infamous Isabel of Bavaria, his enemy, by detecting her gallantries. She joined her old foe, the duke of Burgundy. A horrid insurrection was ex-

cited in Paris, and Armagnac and all his party, to the number of three or four thousand, were massacred in one day. A reconciliation now took place between the duke of Burgundy and the dauphin; but, at their interview, the duke was murdered by some of the attendants of the latter. A.D. 1418.

Henry V. had renewed the war with France, had won the battle of Azincourt, and conquered Normandy. Filled with rage against the supposed author of the murder, the whole of the Burgundian party, with Philip, son of the late duke, at their head, and joined by the queen, agreed to the treaty of Troyes with Henry, in which it was stipulated that on his marriage with Catherine, daughter of Charles VI., he should become regent, and succeed to the kingdom on the death of his father-in-law, to the exclusion of the dauphin and all the princes of the blood. Henry, during two years, governed the north of France, and his infant son, Henry VI. was, on the death of Charles, proclaimed king of France and England. 1420. 1422.

Charles VII. was acknowledged only in the central provinces and in Languedoc, Poitou, and Dauphiné. The duke of Bedford governed with vigour for young Henry, and the war was carried on to the advantage of the English. Charles, though brave and talented, was sunk in despair and pleasure. At length, the heroic Maid of Orleans appeared; the affairs of Charles took a new turn; Burgundy returned to his duty, and the English were expelled from France. Master of his kingdom, Charles turned all his thoughts to restoring and extending the royal authority. He suppressed some risings of the nobles, and he formed his celebrated companies of ordinance, a body of about 9000 cavalry, the first standing army maintained in Europe. 1449.

Louis XI., the Tiberius of France, showed the power established by his father to be a despotism. The nobility saw the approaching ruin of their independence. A confederacy, named The League of the Public Weal, was formed against the crown, in which all the princes 1461. 1464.

and great vassals shared, headed by the king's brother, Charles duke of Berry. By the peace of Conflans Louis was compelled to give Charles the duchy of
A.D. Normandy as an appanage*; but he soon deprived him
1442. of it, and at last gave him Guienne, where he died. Having diverted by money the invasion of Edward IV. of England, Louis turned all his thoughts to oppose the duke of Burgundy.

John had given the duchy of Burgundy as an appanage to his third son Philip, and by marriage with the heiress of the count of Flanders he had gotten that province, Artois, Franche-Comté, and the Nivernois. Philip the Good, his grandson, had acquired all the other provinces that compose the Netherlands. Charles the Bold, the present duke, was proud and ambitious: he engaged in war with Lorraine with success; but being offended with the Swiss, he attacked them, and
1476. was defeated at Granson, in the Pays de Vaud, and again at Morat, near Friburg, with prodigious loss. This day broke the power of Burgundy: Charles, with
1477. inferior forces, gave at Nancy battle to the duke of Lorraine, and perished in the fight.

Charles left an only child, a daughter, named Mary The true policy of Louis was evidently to obtain her in marriage for the dauphin; but he preferred setting up a claim to the duchy, as having been an appanage, and therefore incapable of descent to females; and he seized on Artois and Franche-Comté. This and other acts of perfidy incensed Mary, and she married Maximilian,
1477. son of the emperor of Germany. Mary did not long survive: she left a son, Philip, and a daughter, Mar-
1482. garet. At the peace of Arras, the latter was contracted to the dauphin, and Franche-Comté and Artois were to be her dower. In this reign Provence was united to the French crown, by the will of Charles of Anjou.

1483. Charles VIII. was but thirteen years of age on the death of his father. Louis had appointed his daughter

* An appanage was a provision made for a younger son of a king of France. It generally consisted of an extensive fief held of the crown.

Anne, married to the lord of Beaujeu, to be regent. This was contested with her by the duke of Orleans, afterwards Louis XII.; but the lady of Beaujeu stood her ground, and ruled France, in spite of the Orleans party and their ally the duke of Britany.

This last duke, like the duke of Burgundy, died leaving an only daughter. Her hand was sought by the duke of Orleans, whom she preferred herself, by the lord of Albret, of the family of Foix, and by Maximilian king of the Romans, now a widower. The French regent carried on a vigorous war against Britany. The duchess Anne, having no other means of escaping Albret, was married by proxy to Maximilian; but was ultimately compelled to espouse Charles VIII., who was already betrothed to the daughter of Maximilian. This last was enraged at the slight put on himself and his daughter, but was appeased by Charles restoring Artois and Franche-Comté. A.D. 1489.

Thus was France, at length, consolidated into one great monarchy: the feudal system was at an end; no internal disturbances were to be found, and she could now enter with dignity on the large theatre of Europe.

England — The Plantagenets.

Edward I., from the commencement of his reign, directed his attention to the correction of abuses and the exact administration of the laws. While thus engaged, an opportunity offered of interfering in Wales, and he reduced that country under the crown of England, from which it has never since been separated. A dispute arising about the right to the succession to the Scottish crown, that nation referred the question to Edward. The English king appeared with a large army on the frontiers, advanced a claim of feudal superiority over that kingdom, to which the Scots were forced to submit, and he then gave the crown to the candidate whose claim appeared best founded. The Scots soon after took arms for their independence. Edward entered and conquered the whole country; but still the spirit of the 1274. 1282. 1296

nation rose, and Edward died on an expedition against that kingdom. It is gratifying to see vice punish itself: by his eagerness in this flagrantly unjust attempt on Scotland, Edward nearly lost Guienne to the French king; the parliament, of which the commons were now become an essential part, acquired vigour, and the king was forced to give the Confirmation of the Charters by which the charters of Liberties and of the Forests were confirmed, and to bind himself to levy no contributions without the consent of the people. Edward was a monarch of great talent and capacity.

A. D. 1299.

1307. Edward II. was the very opposite of his father; he abandoned himself entirely to the direction of his favourites, at first of Piers Gavestone, and, after his death, of Hugh Spencer. In his wars with Scotland he reaped nothing but disgrace. His army was utterly defeated by the Scots at Bannockburn. Edward was married to Isabella, daughter of the king of France. She and the nobles conspired and deposed the king, and he was barbarously murdered by his keepers at Berkeley castle. A mild, inoffensive prince, he was unfit for those turbulent times.

1327. Edward III. was but fourteen years old when his father was deposed, and the queen was declared regent during his minority. She and her paramour Mortimer governed with such tyranny, that Edward was enabled to seize the reins of government, and to have Mortimer executed for his crimes. Unjust and expensive wars with France and Scotland, in which, no doubt, brilliant victories were gained, occupied nearly the whole of this reign. Owing to the king's consequent great demand for supplies, parliament increased in power and influence, and three great principles were established; to wit, the illegality of raising money without consent; the necessity of the concurrence of the two houses for any alteration of the laws; and the right of the commons to enquire into public abuses, and to impeach ministers. Edward instituted the order of the Garter. His reign was the noon of chivalry, of which himself and his son, the Black Prince, were the mirrors.

A. D.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, succeeded his 1377.
grandfather, at the age of eleven years. In the fifth
year of his réign broke out, in consequence of oppressive 1381.
taxation, the great insurrection of the villeins, headed by
Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, in the suppression
of which the king showed such courage and presence of
mind as gave great hopes of his future excellence. But
these hopes were deceived: Richard was proud, indolent,
fond of pomp and expense, and attached to favourites.
Various methods were employed to restrain him, but
without effect: he had succeeded in obtaining power
nearly absolute, when the duke of Hereford, who had
been unjustly banished, returned, during the king's ab-
sence in Ireland, to claim the inheritance of his father,
the duke of Lancaster. All ranks and orders flocked to
his standard; the king, on his return, was deserted by
his troops; he threw himself into Flint castle, where,
induced by the base treachery and perjury of the earl
of Northumberland, he surrendered. He was led to
London, deposed by parliament, forced to abdicate, con-
fined in Pomfret castle, and there murdered. 1399.

Richard had no children; he had declared his cousin,
Roger Mortimer earl of March, son of Philippa, only
daughter of Lionel duke of Clarence, second son to
Edward III., his successor. Roger was killed in Ire-
land, and his eldest son was a boy of but seven years of
age. Henry duke of Lancaster was son to John, third
son of Edward III.; he had therefore evidently no right
to the crown. But on the deposition of Richard he
made a *challenge* of the crown, in terms in which were
strangely mingled right of descent*, conquest, and merit.
At all events, he was placed on the throne by the una-
nimous voice of lords and commons; and as with
Henry's small means it is idle to talk of force, he was
plainly a lawful monarch, and no usurper. The con-

* It was a vulgar notion that Edmund earl of Lancaster, and not Ed-
ward I., was the eldest son of Henry III.; but on account of some personal
deformity he had been set aside, and his brother imposed on the nation.
The present duke of Lancaster was his heir by his mother; and if that
story was true, he was the true heir to the crown.

stitution, however, received advantage from the defect
A. D. in his title, and the commons advanced greatly in im-
1402. portance and influence. The Percies rebelled against Henry; but he defeated them and their allies at Shrewsbury, and effectually crushed them. His government was firm and vigorous, and advantageous to the nation; and, but for the crimes by which the crown was acquired, he would be deserving of esteem as a monarch. His mind is said to have been harassed by remorse for what he had done, and no acts of unnecessary cruelty sully his reign.

1431. Henry V. succeeded with universal favour. He was young, brave, affable, and generous. He had not been long on the throne when he engaged in his wars with France, which gave England the pride of Azincourt, and placed his son on the throne of that country. In the midst of his glory he died in his thirty-fourth year at Paris.

1422. Henry VI. being but a year old at his accession, his uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, administered the public affairs, and the bishop of Winchester had charge of the king's person. Notwithstanding the great abilities of the duke of Bedford, the English affairs declined in France, and before the king was of age nearly all the acquisitions of his father in that country were lost. After the death of the duke of Bedford, the duke of Gloucester and the bishop of Winchester, now a cardinal, contended for the direction of the king's councils.

1443. In the affair of the young monarch's marriage the cardinal was victorious, and married him to Margaret of Anjou, daughter to Regnier, titular king of Naples, a princess of masculine spirit and great ability and address. The duke of Gloucester was afterwards thrown into pri-
1447. son and murdered, a deed in which his uncle the cardinal, and perhaps the queen, was deeply concerned.

A claimant to the crown now appeared. Richard duke of York was son to the earl of Cambridge, by Anne, sister of the late earl of March, in whom ended the males of the house of Mortimer. The rights of that

family, therefore, centred in the duke of York, who was thus descended by his mother from the only daughter of the duke of Clarence, *second* son of Edward III.; whereas the king was descended from the duke of Lancaster, *third* son of that monarch. The duke of York was a man of most amiable manners, of large possessions, of extensive connexions and influence. The loss of France, the hatred of the king's ministers, and, above all, the murder of the duke of Gloucester, had alienated the affections of the people. A large body of the nobility, and the commons in general, sided with the duke of York, and recourse was had to arms. The battle of St. Alban's, gained by the Yorkists, was the commencement of a struggle which lasted thirty years, and in which were fought twelve pitched battles. The battles of Blore-heath and Northampton were gained by the York party. In the last the king was taken prisoner: but the spirit of Margaret was unbroken; she collected a large army, to which the duke of York was imprudent enough to give battle at Wakefield, where he was defeated and slain. Here the queen and her friends commenced that ferocious system which, being imitated by the other party, casts on these wars such an aspect of horror and barbarity. The head of the duke of York was cut off, and fixed on the gates of York; his son, the earl of Rutland, was murdered in cold blood; the earl of Salisbury and other noblemen were executed by martial law.

A.D. 1455. 1460.

The claims of the duke descended to his son Edward, who gained the battle of Mortimer's Cross. The Yorkists were defeated at St. Alban's. Edward now assumed the crown by a somewhat irregular popular election.

1461.

Edward IV. was handsome, brave, affable; but licentious, and barbarously cruel. The Lancastrians were defeated with great slaughter at Towton. Henry and Margaret fled to Scotland; but the indefatigable queen went to France, and inducing Louis XI. to assist her with some troops and money, she returned and raised another army, but was again totally defeated at Hexham. Margaret fled to France, and Henry, being

1461. 1464.

discovered, was thrown into the Tower. The hopes of the Lancastrians seemed now quite crushed, when a coolness arising between Edward and the great earl of Warwick, called the *king-maker*, the latter entered into a treaty with Margaret, and drove Edward out of the kingdom, and restored Henry; but in less than six months Edward returned, and Warwick was defeated
A. D. 1471. and slain at the battle of Barnet. The very day of this battle Margaret and her son, prince Edward, landed at Weymouth. Though at first overwhelmed at the tidings of the defeat and death of Warwick, she resumed her wonted spirit, collected an army, and marched to Tewkesbury. Here fortune proved once more adverse; the Lancastrian army was totally routed, the queen and prince taken, and the latter murdered, almost in the presence of Edward. Henry soon afterwards died, murdered, as was said, by the duke of Gloucester in the Tower, and the hopes of the Lancastrians now seemed extinct.

1483. Edward V. was, it is said, with his brother the duke of York, murdered in the Tower by their uncle, the duke of Gloucester, who usurped the crown under the title of Richard III. The duke of Buckingham, who had aided Richard in his projects, being discontented, invited over the earl of Richmond, who had sheltered himself in Britany; but having taken arms before the arrival of this nobleman, he was seized and executed by order of Richard. Richmond at his landing was joined by many; Richard hastened to oppose him: the engagement took place on the field of Bosworth. Richard was
1485. slain fighting bravely, and Richmond was saluted king on the field of battle by the title of Henry VII. With Richard III. ended the line of Plantagenet, which had governed England with glory, on the whole, during three centuries. The new house was called that of Tudor, from the family name of Henry VII.

The title of Henry was exposed to all the defects in the original Lancastrian title; and even supposing that to be good, he was not the true heir of that family; for

he claimed through his mother Margaret, sole heiress of the duke of Somerset, sprung from John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster; but the line of Somerset derived from one of the children of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford, during the life of his duchess, and was therefore illegitimate, and even adulterous; and though Richard II. had legitimated these children, they were never conceived to have any claim to the crown; and farther, the mother of Henry was still alive. Edward IV. had left daughters, of whose title there could be no doubt, and Henry was to be married to Elizabeth, the eldest of them; but he had an aversion to that family, and he would not appear to owe his crown to his wife. During all his reign he was very tender on this subject of his title.

A. D.

After a good deal of delay, he married the princess 1486.
Elizabeth, but he never loved her. The duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., raised up an impostor against him, pretending to be Richard duke of York*, who had escaped from the Tower; but the vigilance of the king easily crushed all attempts against his crown. The chief defect in Henry's character was avarice; his great object was the depression of the nobility; a point the more easily to be effected, as most of them had perished in the civil wars. The landed proprietors obtained power to alienate their estates; and as commerce had greatly increased, luxury extended, and many of the commons had amassed wealth, the object nearest Henry's heart was rapidly effected, though we are not, perhaps, to compliment his sagacity with having foreseen it.

Wars between France and England.

As they were now at an end, the present seems a good occasion of giving a consecutive view of these useless and disastrous wars.

When Edward III. laid claim to the crown of 1338.

* The fate of this prince and his brother is involved in singular mystery.

France *, his first care was to strengthen himself by alliances with the duke of Brabant, the count of Hainault, his father-in-law, and other princes near the Rhine; and as the English had been for some time connected by trade with the Flemings, and that people, who were in rebellion against their earl, were governed by James van Artiveld, a brewer of Ghent, Edward sought to gain that demagogue to his side, and he succeeded in his ob-
A. D. ject. Thus supported, Edward collected an army, and
1339. entered France; but nothing of moment occurred in this first campaign, and the funds of the English monarch being exhausted, he was obliged to return home. The following year Edward gained a naval victory over the French, and entered France at the head of 100,000 men; but Philip declined engaging, and a truce was concluded for a year. During the truce affairs took such a turn in Britany as engaged the two kingdoms again in war. Charles of Blois, nephew to the French king, had married the daughter of the duke of Britany, upon whose death the count de Montford, the next heir male, seized the duchy. Feeling he could not hold it against the power of France, he went over to England, and offered to do homage for it to Edward. Edward accepted the proposal, and sent over troops to assist his vassal. Montford had meantime been taken prisoner; but his wife maintained his cause with masculine energy. This strug-
1343. gle was terminated by a truce for three years, on honourable terms for Edward and the countess.

1344. The truce was broken the next year. Edward in-
1346. vaded Normandy with an army of 30,000 men. Philip advanced at the head of 90,000. The English king, fearing to be surrounded, retreated towards Flanders. The bridges over the Somme were broken down, and a French force was on the opposite side; but the English, having discovered a ford, passed over and drove off the French. As the rear-guard of the English was passing, the army of Philip came up; but, the tide rising, it could not pass, and had to go round by the bridge of

* See p. 279.

Abbeville. Fearing to march over the plains of Picardy, exposed to the numerous cavalry of the French, Edward resolved to give battle, and he drew up his troops in three lines on a rising ground near the village of Crecy: the French advanced also in three lines; but they were fatigued with their march, and disordered. The battle began about three o'clock in the day (Aug. 26.), and ended in a complete victory on the part of the English. The French lost 40,000 men, among whom were several of the nobility, 1200 knights, and 1400 gentlemen. A. D.

Edward now invested Calais, which surrendered after 1347.
a siege of twelve months. The inhabitants were expelled, and the town peopled with English. A truce was concluded, which the dreadful plague that ravaged Europe at that time caused to be prolonged.

During the truce Philip died, and was succeeded by his son John. Charles king of Navarre, surnamed the Bad, son of Jane, daughter of Louis Hutin, entered secretly into correspondence with the king of England, into which he drew even the dauphin; but that prince afterwards repenting, betrayed the king of Navarre to his father, who threw him into prison. Philip, brother of the king of Navarre, put all his fortresses into a state of defence, and called on Edward for assistance. The war was renewed. 1356.

Edward the Black Prince, eldest son of the king of England, commanded in Guienne. He ventured with an army of 12,000 men to advance into the French territory. John collected an force of 60,000 men, and came up with him at Maupertuis, near Poitiers. The Black Prince offered to surrender his conquests for a safe retreat: he was refused: he then prepared for battle, and drew up his little army with the utmost skill (Sep. 19.). The usual impetuosity of the French hurried them to the attack, and the battle ended in the utter rout of the French army, and the captivity of their king. The generosity of the Black Prince to his captive, only paralleled by that of Alp Arslan*, is well

* See p. 231.

A. D. known. John was led to Bordeaux, and thence to Eng-
1357. land, and a truce was concluded for two years.

France was now in a complete state of anarchy; but the truce and the want of money prevented Edward's deriving any advantage from it. At the expiration of the truce he invaded and ravaged that kingdom; but finding he could not make a durable impression, he
1360. concluded the peace of Bretigni. The terms of this peace were, that John should pay three millions of crowns of gold for his ransom; that Edward should give up all claim to the crown of France, and to Normandy, Touraine, Maine, and Anjou, for which he was to receive Poitou, Saintonge, Lagenois, Perigord, the Limousin, Quercy, and other neighbouring places, with Calais, Guisnes, Montreuil, and Ponthieu; all in full sovereignty, no homage for them or Guienne to be due to the crown of France.

Charles V. succeeding John, who died soon after the peace of Bretigni, the terms of which were never executed, some of the Gascon nobles appealed to him, as the superior lord, against the heavy taxes laid on them by the Black Prince, in consequence of his expedition to Spain. That able monarch, who had now terminated the disorders of his kingdom, summoned the prince to appear in his court at Paris to answer the complaint of his vassals. Edward replied that he would, but it would be at the head of 60,000 men. But his health was declining; he was obliged to return to England;
1370. and the war terminated in the English being stripped of Guienne, except Bordeaux and Bayonne, and of all their conquests but Calais.

During the reign of Richard II. the war was carried on languidly. One of its most remarkable events was the duke of Glocester, the king's uncle, having the har-
1380. dihood to march out of Calais at the head of 2000 horse and 8000 foot, enter the heart of France, and ravage all the country till he joined his allies in Britany. The duke of Burgundy came within sight with a much superior army; but such was the terror the

French felt of the English, that he did not venture to attack them. Some years afterwards, the king of France made preparations for invading England; but his fleet was dispersed by a storm, and many of the ships taken by the English. The Gascons put themselves, in this reign, once more under the government of England. Both parties were now anxious for peace; but as the terms could not be adjusted, they agreed on a truce for twenty-five years, and Richard was affianced to Isabella, daughter of Charles, a princess only seven years old. A. D. 1386. 1396.

On the murder of Richard, the French king made some show of avenging his death; but on the princess Isabella being given up, he renewed the truce with Henry IV. Towards the end of his reign Henry began to take some part in the quarrels of the Orleans and Burgundy factions in France, and sent a small body of troops to the aid of the latter, and afterwards a larger to that of the former. 1401. 1411.

Henry IV. had when dying exhorted his son not to let the English nation remain long at rest. Henry V. therefore, taking advantage of the distracted state of France*, sent ambassadors to Paris with most exorbitant proposals. He demanded the crown of France (or at least reserved his right to it), Normandy, Touraine, Maine, Guienne, and the homage of Britany and Flanders, the princess Catherine in marriage, and 2,000,000 crowns of gold as her dower, and the arrear of king John's ransom. The French offered him Guienne and Saintonge, and a dower of 800,000 crowns. Henry forthwith prepared for war; he collected a fleet and army, consisting of 6000 men at arms and 24,000 foot, at Southampton, landed in Normandy, and took the town of Harfleur. Having dismissed his transports, he was obliged to march his army to Calais by land. An army of 14,000 men at arms and 40,000 foot, under the constable d'Albert, was now collected in Normandy. Henry offered to give up Harfleur for a safe passage to Calais: this offer was rejected: he marched by 1415.

* See p. 281.

slow journeys till he reached the Somme, which he intended passing where Edward had passed, but found it strongly guarded: he at length seized a passage near St. Quintin, and got safely over. He now marched for Calais; but on ascending the heights near Blangi (Oct. 25.) he saw the whole French army drawn up on the plain of Azincourt. Henry's army was now reduced by disease and the sword to about 15,000 men. His situation was similar to that of Edward at Crecy, and of the Black Prince at Poitiers, and he made the same judicious dispositions. The French acted with the same impetuosity and imprudence: the final result was similar. Of the French 10,000 were slain, among whom were the constable himself and some of the chief nobility; 14,000 were made prisoners, among whom were the dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, and many other nobles of high rank. The English lost but forty men. Want of funds preventing Henry, like his predecessors, from taking full advantage of this victory, he returned to England, having made a truce with the enemy.

During this truce the animosity between the Armagnac and Burgundian parties raged with the greatest violence. Henry collected an army of 25,000 men, and landed in Normandy: several towns surrendered, and, being reinforced with 15,000 more, he formed the siege of Rouen. The queen and the duke of Burgundy now made a treaty with him similar to that afterwards made at Troyes; but before it was completed the dauphin and duke of Burgundy entered into a secret treaty to share the supreme power, and expel the invader. But the murder of the duke taking place, his son instantl formed a league with the king of England, and the treaty of Troyes was concluded. All the north of
A. D. France was rapidly conquered, and the dauphin driven
1422. beyond the Loire. In this state of affairs Henry V. died.

The duke of Bedford prosecuted the war with vigour.
1424. The battle of Verneuil, in which the only army of the king of France was defeated with great loss, seemed to

have given the finishing stroke to his fortunes. Bedford resolved to penetrate into the south of France, and A. D. for that purpose formed the siege of Orleans. Every 1428. effort was made to defend this city, on which the hopes of France now seemed to depend. The siege was tedious, but the English were gradually gaining ground, when that wonderful visionary, Joan of Arc, appeared to restore the sinking destiny of France. A secret horror thrilled the English soldiers, which their officers either shared or could not remove; defeat attended them every where; the provinces and towns of France returned joyfully to their allegiance; the duke of Burgundy was reconciled to his sovereign, and the English were, in a few years, driven out of every part of France but Calais. 1450. Thus, happily for both countries, ended all the magnificent projects of the conquest of France.

Scotland.

From a very early period Scotland had been governed by kings. These were frequently engaged in wars and alliances with the northern princes of the heptarchy. When Duncan king of Scotland was murdered by Macbeth, an army was sent by Edward the Confessor against the usurper, and Malcolm, the rightful heir, was restored to the throne. This prince espoused the sister of Edgar Atheling, and many of the English fled to Scotland from the tyranny of the Conqueror. The Scots began now to make occasional inroads into England. In one of these, William king of Scotland was taken prisoner by Henry II., and, as a part of the conditions of his liberty, was forced to do homage for his whole kingdom, as his predecessors had often done before, both to the Anglo-Saxon and the Norman kings of England.

On the death of Alexander III., near a century after- 1286. wards, a dispute arose about the succession to the Scottish throne. That monarch having left no descendant but a grand-daughter, who did not long survive him, the

right fell to the descendants of David earl of Huntingdon, third son of David I.; of these John Baliol was *grandson* of Margaret, the earl's eldest daughter; Robert Bruce was *son* of Isabel, his second daughter. The rules of succession not being at that time well established, it was a doubtful question which was the true heir. To avoid a recourse to arms, the parliament of Scotland determined to refer the matter to the arbitration of Edward I., a prince extolled for wisdom and prudence. Edward seized this occasion of obtaining the sovereignty of Scotland: he appeared on the frontier with a large army, and compelled all the Scottish nobles, including the two candidates, to swear fealty to him as liege lord; he made them give him possession of the kingdom, and then declaring Baliol the true heir, put him in posses-
A. D. 1292. sion of it, on his renewing his oath of fealty.

The Scottish nation, and even their king, were indignant at being thus trepanned and degraded: a secret alliance was formed with France; a dispensation of the king's oath of fealty was procured from the pope; and, on being summoned to appear in an English parliament
1296. at Newcastle, Baliol refused to attend. Edward entered Scotland at the head of 30,000 foot and 4000 horse, and quickly over-ran and subdued the entire kingdom. Baliol was forced to submit and implore forgiveness, English garrisons were placed in the fortresses, and earl Warrenne left governor.

This earl being obliged to return to England on account of his health, the administration was left in the hands of Ormsby and Cressingham, who oppressed the people without mercy. A gentleman, named William Wallace, was so provoked as to kill an English officer. Knowing he had no mercy to expect, he fled to the woods and collected a party, with whom he continually harassed the English; numbers joined him; several of the principal barons countenanced him; and the whole country was on the eve of rising, when Warrenne collected an army of 40,000 men, and suddenly returned. Making an attack on the camp of Wallace, near Stirling,

the English were totally routed, and Cressingham slain. The nation now rose, and bestowed on Wallace the title of regent. The English were expelled; but Edward, who had been in Flanders, returned, collected an army of 80,000 men, and entered the country. The Scots ventured to give him battle at Falkirk (June 22), A. D.
when they were routed with great slaughter. They still 1298
carried on the contest; but Wallace was betrayed by his friend sir John Menteith, and the intrepid patriot was executed in London as a rebel. 1305.

Robert Bruce, who had been in the English service, now stepped forward to defend his own and his country's rights. The Scottish nation rose once more; the English were driven out of the country, and Bruce was crowned at Scone. Edward now found he had all his work to do over again; he sent an army, under Aymer de Valence earl of Pembroke, who defeated Bruce, and forced him to take shelter in the Western Isles. The king was himself advancing, determined to wreak his vengeance on the Scots, when he sickened and died at Carlisle, with his last breath charging his son to prose- 1307
cute the war.

Edward II. was anxious to get back to England, and after a few feeble efforts he left Scotland. Bruce who had returned, made himself master of the whole kingdom except a few fortresses, and even made inroads into England. Edward was roused; he collected a large force, and entered Scotland. The English army was 80,000 strong; that of Bruce did not exceed 30,000. But he ventured to give them battle at Bannockburn, near Stirling (June 1314.
14), where he totally defeated them. This victory, one of the most glorious ever obtained, secured the independence of Scotland, and reduced to nothing all the hopes founded on the iniquitous attempt of Edward I. One more fruitless effort was made by Edward, and a truce was 1323.
then concluded for thirteen years.

On the death of Robert Bruce, who left a son, a minor, Edward III. secretly encouraged the son of John Baliol to put forward his claim to the Scottish kingdom.

A. D.

1332. raised a small army, with which he landed on the coast of Fife, and advanced into the heart of the country, where he defeated the Scottish army of 30,000 men, under the earl of Mar. He then took Perth, and was crowned at Scone. But having dismissed the greater part of his English followers, he was soon after driven back into England. He here made large offers to Edward, particularly engaging to renew the homage which had been given up by Mortimer in Edward's minority, if he would assist him to regain his throne. Edward collected a large army; the Scots encountered him at Halidon-hill,

1333. near Berwick (July 19), and were defeated with the loss of nearly 20,000 men and the chief of their nobility. But still Scotland was unconquered. The English forces might over-run and destroy the country; but as soon as they retired, the natives repossessed it, and again bade them defiance.

David, the son of Robert Bruce, had taken refuge in France, but had returned, and driven Baliol out of

1346. Scotland. At the solicitation of the king of France, with whom he had made an alliance, he invaded England. Queen Philippa, at the head of 12,000 men, met him at Neville's Cross, near Durham (October 17), and the Scottish king was defeated and taken prisoner. After a captivity of ten years, he was released for a ransom of 100,000 marks.

1385. Richard II. invaded Scotland, at the head of 60,000 men, and ravaged the country, as usual; but in the meantime 30,000 Scots retaliated on the west of England, and Richard returned without having effected

1401. any thing. Henry IV. led an army into Scotland to no purpose. The Scots immediately after invaded Eng-

1402. land, but were defeated by the Percies at Humbledown. The Scots afterwards aided the Percies in their rebellion.

Robert III. of Scotland was a feeble prince: his brother, the duke of Albany, seized the government and aimed at the throne: to effect this purpose, he resolved to remove his nephews; and he threw David, the elder,

into prison, where he perished of hunger. Robert, to save James, his younger son, sent him to France; but the ship was taken by the English, and Henry IV. refused to restore the young prince to liberty. Robert died of grief; and now, by possessing the person of the young king, Henry was able to keep the duke of Albany in dependence, and secure his kingdom from inroads. He, however, gave the young monarch an excellent education. A. D. 1407.

Ever since the time of Edward III., the French and Scottish nations had been in strict alliance against the common enemy. When Henry V. had had such a career of success in France, the Scottish nation and the regent saw plainly that they must submit if that country was conquered, and a body of 7000 men was sent to the aid of the dauphin, who treated them with great favour. Throughout the war, Scottish volunteers crowded to the French standard; and, in the reign of Henry VI., the duke of Bedford recommended it as the best policy, to marry the young king of Scots to the king's cousin, the daughter of the earl of Somerset, and give him his liberty. This was done, and James, during his short reign, proved one of the greatest of the Scottish monarchs. He was murdered by his kinsman the earl of Athol. During the wars of the Roses, Scotland was too much distracted by factions to be able to take any advantage of the state of England. In the reign of Henry VII., James IV. gave countenance and assistance to Perkin Warbeck; but the war was happily terminated by the marriage of the Scottish monarch with Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry. 1421. 1423. 1437. 1502.

Scandinavia.

Denmark and Norway we have seen early formed into monarchies. Sweden remained longer divided into small independent districts. The Swedes and Goths at length agreed to form one state, to be governed alternately by a Goth of the race of Svercher, and a Swede of that of Eric. The natural consequence was endless assas-

A. D.
1153. sination. In the 14th century the race of Odin in Sweden was extinct, and a foreigner was placed on the throne. In the same century, the ancient lines in Denmark and Norway ended with Waldemar and Olaf. Margaret, daughter of the former, mother of the latter, was heiress to both. She defeated Albert of Mecklenburg king of Sweden, and
1398. forced him to abdicate, and then, by the Union of Calmar, united the three Scandinavian kingdoms. Margaret, having no children, was succeeded by her nephew Eric, of the ducal house of Pomerania, but he was driven out of
1439. the three kingdoms. Christopher, a duke of Bavaria, was invited to Denmark, and the other kingdoms sub-
1448. mitted to his government. On his death Christian, son of the count of Oldenburg, was chosen king of Denmark, and by his mother, who was sister to the count of Holstein, he obtained that country, which was now made a
1459. duchy. Norway followed the example of Denmark; but Carl Cnutson and Steno Sture maintained the independence of Sweden against him and his two successors.

Poland.

The Poles are a portion of the Slavonians, the last great race which arrived in Europe. They were at first divided into several small states, for ever at war with each other. When they embraced the Christian religion, they united under the government of a duke.
1295. In the thirteenth century, Przemysl, of the house of the Piasti, assumed the royal dignity. This race ruled Poland five hundred years, and it ended with Casimir the
1370. Great, in 1370. He was succeeded by his sister's son, Louis of Anjou, king of Hungary, also named the Great. This king left only daughters: Sigismund of Luxem-
1382. burg, the husband of Mary, the eldest, was king of Hungary, and Louis had provided for the continued union of the two crowns; but the Poles and Hedwig, his other daughter, rejected that arrangement, and that
1386. princess gave her hand to Jagellon, great-prince of Lithuania, who with his people embraced the Christian re-

ligion. The kingdom flourished greatly under this king: its export of corn was considerable. In the reign of his son, by the choice of the Hungarians, the two countries were again united; but this young monarch lost both life and crown in the battle of Varna, against the Turkish sultan Moorad. A. D. 1437. 1444.

His brother Casimir succeeded him in Poland, and was one of the greatest princes of his time. He made great acquisitions from the Teutonic order of knights. Casimir reigned nearly half a century, and saw Vladislaus, one of his sons, king of Hungary and Bohemia.

Hungary.

The house of Arpad ruled four hundred years in Hungary, and ended with Andrew III. On the death of this monarch, the people were split into various parties; that of Charles Robert, of the Neapolitan branch of the house of Anjou, prevailed, and he was called to the throne. His vigour and wisdom, in the course of a long reign, raised the kingdom to great glory; and the long reign also of his son Louis still further increased its power and dignity. But Louis unfortunately died just as the Ottoman power was growing formidable on the frontiers, and the kingdom was again distracted by faction. Sigismund, a stranger, was chosen king, and reigned for more than half a century. He lost the battle of Nicopolis to the Turks; but circumstances prevented their attempting to follow up their victory. Sigismund was succeeded in the empire and in Hungary by his son-in-law, Albert of Austria. Albert's successor, Ladislaus, being a posthumous child, the Hungarians gave the crown, for his minority, to Vladislaus king of Poland. On his death John Hunniades was made regent, and at the battle of Belgrade he gave an effectual check to the Ottoman power. The young king lived but two years after Hunniades; and the nation then chose Matthias the son of the valiant John Hunniades, to be their sovereign. Matthias was the greatest prince of his age, and in his wars with Austria and Bohemia victory always 1301. 1310. 1343. 1382. 1386. 1437. 1456. 1458.

A. D. attended him. On his death, the Hungarians elected
1490. Vladislaus, son of Casimir king of Poland, already king of Bohemia.

The Ottomans.

When the Mongols of Chingis Khan had burst through the barriers of Khowaresm over Persia and Lesser Asia, Suleiman, one of the noblest of the Turkish tribe of
1224. Oghuz, migrated at the head of 50,000 souls from Khorassan to Armenia. After remaining seven years in that country, Suleiman prepared to return to his former abode; but chancing to be drowned in crossing the Euphrates at Jaaber, his followers dispersed. A part remained in Syria, another part went to Lesser Asia.

Of the four sons of Suleiman, two returned to Khorassan; the two younger, Dindar and Ortoghrul, retired with four hundred families to the mountains east of Erzeroom, and thence roved westwards, to seek a retreat in the dominions of Ala-ed-deen, the great prince of the Seljookians of Iconium. On their way, they came to where two armies were fighting; Ortoghrul chivalrously resolved to assist the weaker, and his aid turned the scale. It was Ala-ed-deen whom he made victorious over an army of Tatars; and the grateful sultan bestowed honours and pasture-land on his ally. This land, the cradle of the Ottoman power, is the Sanjak of Sultan Oni, the ancient Phrygia Epictetos. Here they fed their herds on the mountains in summer, and in winter descended into the plain; and they lived in amity with the neighbouring subjects of the Greek emperors.

Osman, the son of Ortoghrul, resolved on conquest. His dervishes excited the courage of his soldiers, and he
1299. established a kingdom in Bithynia, of which Brusa, at the foot of the Mysian Olympus, became the capital. It is from this monarch that the western Turks derive their appellation of Ottomans, or more properly Osmans.

1326. In the time of his son Orchan, a great part of Lesser Asia was subdued by the Turkish arms. The isles of Greece felt their power: the court of Constan-

tinople was split into factions; civil war raged in the empire; each party sought the aid of the Turks. John Cantacuzenes, a man of talent and virtue, on ascending the throne, felt that its strength was gone, and retired to the solitude of Mount Athos. His successor, John Palæologus, was sunk in pleasure. Under the reign of Orchan the Ottoman institutions, one of which was the formation of the corps of Janizaries (*Yeni-cheri*, new soldiers) were established, chiefly under the direction of his brother and vizier, the able Ala-ed-deen.

A. D.

Moorad (Amurath), the son and successor of Orchan, 1359.
took Adrianople, the second city of the empire, and made it the European capital of his dominions. By marriage he acquired the greater part of Kermian, and by purchase he gained Hamid. Philippopolis was taken from the Greeks; but Moorad found a more obstinate resistance from the Servians and Bulgarians. He fell at 1389.
Cossova, assassinated by a valiant Servian youth.

Bayezeed (Bajezet) Yilderim, *i. e. Lightning*, a brave but headstrong prince, succeeded his father, and his first act was to put to death his only brother. The forces of Western Europe, Germany, Hungary, and France, commanded by Sigismund, king of Hungary, the counts of Nevers, la Marche, and Eu, the admiral de Vienne, the marshal Boucicault, the lord of Coucy, and several others of the prime nobility of France and Germany, with 60,000 men, advanced to Nicopolis. Bayezeed led 1396.
against them a more numerous host. The Christians fought with their wonted valour, but yielded to the numbers and the discipline of the Moslems: their leaders were slain or made captive. Sigismund escaped to the Danube with five companions, and thence to Constantinople. Bosnia was overrun by Bayezeed, and he was preparing to invest Constantinople a second time, when the progress of his conquests westwards was checked by the approach on the east of the Tatars under Timoor. Bayezeed hastened to oppose them. On the plains of Angora he fought with a courage worthy of his race, 1402.
but was defeated and taken prisoner. Grief and vex-

A. D.
1402. ation caused his death, and the conqueror restored his body to the sepulchre of his fathers.

The captivity and death of Bayezeed weakened and distracted the Turkish power: the sons of the captive sultan contended with each other; and it was only by
1413. the wisdom of Mohammed I. and his vizier Bayezeed that the empire regained its vigour. His son, Moorad II.,
1422. a valiant and merciful hero, subdued the greater part of what remained to the Greek emperors. John VII. in vain sought aid in Europe; in vain he visited Italy, and agreed to an union of the churches. The union was rejected by the Greek clergy, and theological controversy reigned more violently than ever in the falling empire of the East.

Moorad having made peace with Hungary, adhered to it faithfully. But while he was at Magnesia, in Asia, the papal legate released the Hungarians from their oath, and they seized this opportunity of assailing the Ottoman dominions. King Vladislaus and John Hunniades marched to the Black Sea. Moorad appeared; the battle
1444. was fought at Varna. In the front of his array Moorad displayed the violated treaty. Victory was long on the side of the Christians, when Moorad, it is said, pointing to the treaty, called aloud on God to avenge their perjury, and at that moment the young king rushed amid the ranks of the Janizaries and fell, and victory declared for the sultan. This excellent prince, twice during his reign, resigned his crown for the enjoyment of a private life, but was each time recalled to the throne by the danger of the state.

1451. Moorad's son, Mohammed II., joined to the valour of his father a greater spirit of enterprise. The doom of Constantinople was now fixed. It had stood in magnificence for 1123 years, had seen its western rival more than once open her gates to a conqueror, while itself had but once submitted, and had again assumed its dignity; but now its dynasty and its religion were to change, the rovers of the steppes were to lord it in the palace of the Cæsars, and the crescent was to replace

the glittering cross on the summit of its great temple. Mohammed invested the city: during fifty days the massive walls were assailed by artillery of enormous size and power. The Turks at length burst in: Constantine, the last of the Cæsars, fell at the breach, sword in hand, with a courage worthy of the greatest of those whom he represented. The city was plundered, the inhabitants sold into slavery. A.D. 1453.

The Peloponnesus was speedily overrun, and the little empire of Trebizond, which had lasted 258 years, submitted at the appearance of Mohammed. The Palæologi in the Peloponnesus were forced to yield to the Ottoman arms; but in Albania, George Castriot (called for his valour by the Turks Scanderbeg, i. e. Prince Alexander) resisted the Turkish power with success as long as he lived. The battle of Belgrade checked effectually the progress of Mohammed on the side of Hungary. The Servians were completely subdued. The voivode of Wallachia, the merciless Drakul, made a more vigorous defence; but he was defeated, and that country also reduced to submission. Caramania was forced to submit to the rule of Mohammed; but the knights of Rhodes repelled him from their island. 1461.

The Tatars — Timoor.*

Timoor (i. e. *Iron*) was descended from Berla, the Emir-ul-umera of Jagatai, the son of Chingis Khan. The youth of Timoor was spent in freebooting and the chase: in his twenty-seventh year he rendered important military service to the emir Husein of the house of Jagatai, who then ruled over Khorassan and Transoxiana, against the khan of Turkestan. The hand of the emir's sister was his reward; but on her death within four years, Timoor cast off allegiance, and war broke 1335.

* We consider the distinction between Turks and Tatars to have been clearly shown by M. Klaproth: the former are of Caucasian, the latter of Mongol race. Yet the Tatars of Timoor appear rather of mixed race; at least, Timoor himself is described of a fair and ruddy complexion, very different from that of a Mongol. *Tartar*, the corruption of Tatar, owes its origin to a pun of St. Louis on *Tatar* and the Latin *Tartarus*.

out between him and the emir. On the death of the latter Timoor occupied the throne, and fixed his residence at Samarkund. He turned his arms first against the sultan of the Jetans (*Getæ?*) and the shah of Khowarezm, then subdued Khorassan, and ravaged Persia during three years: with the speed of light he now
A. D. swept over Great Tatary, and shortly afterwards feasted
1391. his host on the banks of the Volga. A campaign of five years wasted Persia; and Bagdad, Mesopotamia, Koordistan, Armenia, and Georgia were conquered by
1398. the Tatars. Timoor next poured his hordes over the fertile plains of India. The plunder of Delhi rewarded their efforts, and he pursued the flying Indians to the sources of the sacred Ganges. The same year the Tatar conqueror wintered on the plains of Karabagh, west of the Caspian; in the spring he laid waste Georgia, took Sivas, one of the finest and most populous cities of Lesser Asia, and cruelly put the garrison to death; conquered all the towns to Aleppo, defeated there the Egyptian army, and took that city; and, at length, made
1401. a general massacre of the inhabitants of Bagdad.

Timoor wintered once more on the plains of Karabagh. The princes whom Bayezeed had robbed of their dominions had cast themselves on the protection of the Tatar, and Timoor prepared for war with the haughty Ottoman. Negotiation was tried in vain; Bayezeed was hardened in obstinacy, and in the neighbourhood of Angora, on the very plain where Pompeius had defeated Mithridates, the Turkish army of 120,000 men engaged the Tatar host of 700,000. From morning to
1402. night of a burning day (July 20.) endured this last battle of either monarch, and it ended in the total rout of the Turkish host, and the captivity of its leader. The tale of the iron cage is a fabulous legend. The Tatars overran all Lesser Asia; Timoor reached Iconium.
1403. Bayezeed died of apoplexy at Akshehr (March 8.), and two years afterwards Timoor breathed his last on his march against China.

Timoor left his empire to his grandson Peer Moham-

med Jehangheer; but this prince was unfortunate in the contest for the crown with his brother Khulleel Sultan, and the empire eventually fell into the hands of Shah Rokh, the virtuous son of Timoor. But at length the fortune of the house of Timoor was forced to yield before that of the Usbegs; and after a glorious struggle against Shybuk Khan the Usbeg, the able and celebrated Baber retired to Hindoostan, and founded that great empire, the nominal soyereign of which, his lineal descendant, still sits, a monument of fallen greatness, in Delhi, beneath the protection of a British company of merchants. It was while Baber was on the throne that the Portuguese first appeared on the coast of Malabar.

The Turkman tribes of the Black and the White Wether, so named from their standards, had fixed themselves on the western frontier of Persia. On the death of Timoor they advanced into that country: the former tribe established its empire in Aderbijan and the adjacent provinces; the latter extended its power over nearly the whole of Persia. They encountered the arms both of the descendants of Timoor and the Ottoman sultans.

Spain.

The peninsula contained now four Christian kingdoms, Castile, Aragon, Navarre, and Portugal; and one Mohammedan, Granada.

A. D.
1252. Alfonso X., the Wise, king of Castile, was chiefly distinguished by his attachment to science, and by his code, the Siete Partidas. His son Sancho rebelled against him, and disquieted the latter part of his life. The reigns of Sancho and his two successors were periods of anarchy and turbulence. Peter the Cruel surpassed all 1350.
his predecessors in tyranny and crime. A rebellion, headed by his illegitimate brother, Henry of Transtamara, supported by Aragon and Portugal, broke out, and drove him from his throne. Henry was aided by Bertrand du Guesclin and the companies of adventure who had been engaged in the wars between France and

England. Peter fled to Guienne, and implored the aid of the Black Prince, promising to give him Biscay in
A. D. case he should restore him to his throne. The British
1367. prince entered Spain, recalled to his standard the companies of adventure, and defeated Henry at the battle of Navarrete. But Peter's ingratitude causing him to
1369. retire in disgust, Henry again appeared, and he defeated and slew with his own hand the savage tyrant.

The reign of Henry II. was chiefly occupied in contests with the king of Portugal, who claimed the crown of Castile. John I., claiming the throne of Portugal in right of his wife, sustained a great defeat at Aljubarota; his son, Henry III., was an excellent prince. John II.
1406. being but fourteen months old at his accession, the government was wisely administered during his minority by his mother and his uncle Ferdinand. On his attaining his majority, the golden period terminated; the remainder of his reign was a series of conspiracies and civil
1454. wars. Henry IV., son of John, was solemnly and unjustly deposed by a party of his factious nobles, who set
1465. up his brother Alfonso against him, and a civil war ensued. These nobles had accused Henry's queen of adultery, and maintained that Joanna, their only child, was illegitimate. Accordingly, on the death of Alfonso,
1469. his sister Isabel was regarded as the heiress. She agreed to a treaty with Henry, by which the succession was secured to her; but Henry took the first opportunity of rescinding the agreement, and on his death the
1474. parties had to appeal to arms. Isabel, who was married to Ferdinand infant of Aragon, was supported by that power. Joanna was betrothed to Alfonso king of Portugal, and her mother was a princess of that family; she was, therefore, supported in her claim by the strength of that kingdom. The king of Portugal, how-
1476. ever, was defeated at Toro, and all Joanna's partisans gradually submitted to Isabel.

Aragon, though not so extensive as Castile, equalled it in power. Its government was better, its sovereigns
1208. wiser, its trade far more extensive. The renowned king

James I., the Conqueror, added to it the kingdom of Valencia, and also acquired the Balearic isles; a long and sanguinary contest had, at the commencement of the fourteenth century, brought Sardinia under its dominion; and in this century it acquired Naples and Sicily. A. D. 1238.

On the death of Martin king of Aragon, the succession was disputed by five competitors, the count of Urgel, grandson of James, next brother to Peter IV.; the duke of Gandia, grandson of James II.; the duke of Calabria, son of Violante, youngest daughter of John I.; Frederic count of Luna, natural son of the younger Martin king of Sicily; and Ferdinand, infant of Castile, son of the late king's sister. The cortes of Aragon, Catalonia, and Valencia named nine persons, three of each, to hear and decide the claims; and, after solemn deliberation, the crown was adjudged to Ferdinand of Castile. This prince was succeeded by his son Alfonso V., who was made king of Naples, where he passed the greater part of his reign, governing Aragon by his brother and successor John II. On the death of John, the sceptre of Aragon passed to his son Ferdinand, who was married to Isabel queen of Castile, and thus the two monarchies were united into one great kingdom, never again to be divided. Ferdinand now felt himself strong enough to attack Granada, and end the conflict which had lasted for eight centuries. The war commenced; civil dissension rent the Moorish kingdom; a party aided the Christian invaders; yet the conquest of Granada cost ten years of bloody and incessant warfare. At length it surrendered (Jan. 2.), and Spain, in full strength and vigour, was prepared for her conflicts with France.

A. D. 1410. 1416. 1479. 1492.

The little kingdom of Navarre passed continually by females to the French houses of Bigorre, Champagne, Evreux, Foix, and Albret. But the kings of Aragon had made themselves masters of the greater part of it.

Portugal.

Sancho I., Alfonso II., Sancho II., and Alfonso III., passed their reigns chiefly in contests with the church and with the kings of Castile. Dinis was an able and upright prince. The reign of Alfonso IV. the Brave is chiefly distinguished by the murder of the fair Iñes de Castro, the mistress, and afterwards the secret wife, of his son Don Pedro. This prince, on coming to the throne, exhibited a strong but capricious love of justice. He contended with spirit against the power of the church, which was excessive in Portugal, and held it in check. Ferdinand, his feeble son, left an only daughter,
A. D. married to John king of Castile, and Portugal was in
1383. imminent danger of losing her independence.

A conspiracy was formed against the queen dowager, who was regent, and her partisans: John, a natural son of king Pedro, and grand master of the order of Avis, was at the head of it. The conspirators rushed into the castle where the queen resided, and Ruy Pereira slew before her eyes her favourite count Ourem. The people rose; the bishop of Lisbon was flung from the tower of his cathedral; the queen fled to Castile; the master of Avis was appointed regent. The king of Castile (John I.) entered Portugal with an army. Most of the nobles were on his side: the commons were for
1385. Don John, and liberty. At the battle of Aljubarrota 7000 Portuguese defeated more than four times their number of Castilians, and the master of Avis was proclaimed king of Portugal. His reign of forty-eight years was the most brilliant period Portugal had yet
1411. seen. The Portuguese chivalry crossed the strait, and conquered Ceuta from the Moors. Discovery was prosecuted along the coast of Africa, through the generous efforts of his son Don Henry, and Madeira and the Azores
1452. were added to his dominions. While his grandson Alfonso V. was carrying on war with success against the Moors of Fez, adventurous mariners had passed the line, settled on the Gold Coast, and discovered Congo The Cape of Good Hope was doubled by Diaz.

Discovery of America.

The progress of the Portuguese along the coast of Africa, the discovery of new nations, and the knowledge of the incorrectness of the ideas of the ancients respecting geography, aided by the compass, and the courage and skill acquired by navigating the stormy seas of the north, had prepared men for bold and distant voyages. The great problem was, the passage by sea to India: this the Portuguese sought by the circumnavigation of Africa. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of great naval skill and courage, by reflecting on the magnitude of the earth, now known to be globular, had conjectured that, by sailing westwards, a ship might, after passing over a moderate space of sea, arrive at the coast of India. Pieces of carved wood, natural productions, and even the bodies of men had been thrown ashore in different places by the waves running from the west: various traditions were current of a land to the west having been formerly visited. All these circumstances combined, convinced Columbus that, by sailing due west, a ship must, within a moderate space of time, reach a country which, he was firmly persuaded, must be India. Under this impression, he made, as he thought himself bound to do, the first proposal of attempting the discovery to his native city Genoa. Meeting with no encouragement there, he applied to the king of Portugal, in whose capital he resided; but Don John was too firmly bent on the course which the Portuguese had been so long pursuing to hearken to him. Columbus now sent his brother Bartholomew to Henry VII. of England: he went in person to Ferdinand and Isabel of Spain. Bartholomew was taken by pirates, and did not reach England for a long time, by which means that country probably lost the honour of the future discovery. Christopher, after long soliciting at the court of Castile, at length obtained a small squadron from Isabel, elated with the recent conquest of Granada.

With three small vessels, carrying but 90 men, Co- A. D 149[illegible]

lumbus sailed from the port of Palos on the 3d Aug. 1492. He steered westwards, and proceeded a long way without meeting any signs of land: his crews began to grow terrified and mutinous: Columbus soothed and pacified them. At length, one morning (Oct. 12.), the coast and woods of St. Salvador, one of the Bahamas, rose before them,—and the New World was discovered. Sailing farther on, they arrived at Cuba and Hispaniola or St. Domingo; and Columbus returning to Spain with intelligence of his discoveries, all Europe was filled with wonder and conjectures. The new country was named West-India, so convinced were men that it could be
A. D. no other than a part of India, of which they had such
1493. indistinct conceptions. The next year Columbus discovered Puerto Rico, Guadaloupe, and Jamaica. In
1498. his third voyage he discovered Trinidad and a part of South America, which he knew not to be a continent. The ungrateful return made to the services of this great man is too well known, and too consonant to the usual practices of courts, to need mention. He died four
1506. years after his fourth and last voyage, poor and neglected, at Valladolid.

While Columbus was prosecuting his discoveries to the west, the court of Portugal, having now ascertained Africa to be circumnavigable, had sent a fleet under the command of Vasco da Gama, round Africa, in quest of India. He sailed from the Tagus on the 9th of July, 1497, and on the 18th May, 1498 he reached the port of Calicut, on the western coast of India.

The middle ages here terminate. They began in ignorance, anarchy, and confusion: knowledge and order now regain their dominion. The discordant elements of theocracy, monarchy, feudalism, and democracy, which had been in ceaseless conflict during this period, have so modified one another, as to make the fit state of transition to the blended form which characterises that which follows.

OUTLINES OF HISTORY.

PART III.

MODERN HISTORY.

CHAP. 1.

VIEW OF THE STATE OF EUROPE.

Introduction.

At the commencement of the middle ages the great empire of Rome was fallen to pieces from internal corruption and decay: the stream of hardy population which poured down from the north had burst all the opposing mounds and dikes, and overflowed the whole of the western empire. Taste and learning, long declining, were almost extinct; the Christian religion, now that of all parts of the empire, was corrupted and debased; and in that state it was embraced by the rude conquerors, and farther degraded by the admixture of their barbarous tenets and practices. The clergy acquired from the superstitious fears of the people wealth, influence, and power; they ruled the laity with despotic sway, and bishops made kings tremble on their thrones: the pope, as head of the church, sought to draw all this power to himself, and then to make it a source of emolument. The papal dominion had finally attained a height unparalleled in the history of man; but, like every other empire, its ascent only led to its descent. The extravagance of the papal pretensions became apparent when learning began

to be cultivated, and its gradual decline has marked the last period of those ages.

One great empire arose in Europe after the fall of Rome; but it fell to pieces when the vigorous mind which had erected it was gone. Europe was divided into small states, and war, internal and external, raged without ceasing: a haughty independent nobility insulted kings, and tyrannised over the people. The barbarians of the North and the East, and the enthusiastic warriors of the Koran, overran, pillaged, and destroyed the fairest regions of the West. The intercourse of nations, except in war, was small; trade and commerce hardly existed; the merchant was subject to be plundered openly by the stranger-lord, and to be pillaged by the arbitrary taxation of his own.

Gradually the night was seen to pass away; monarchs began to extend their power, and to perceive that it was their true interest to protect the people against the tyranny of the nobles, and to bring these last under obedience; the church used her extensive power for the same purpose; the people gradually acquired wealth; their towns were secured by charters and immunities granted by the crown or the feudal lord, and where the crown was feeble, voluntary associations secured them from the rapacity of the nobles. The latter acquired a relish for luxury: to obtain money, they alienated or let their lands, and soon felt that they had transformed their obedient retainers into sturdy independent yeomen and citizens.

The lamp of learning was relumed; the study of the scholastic theology and philosophy, and of the Roman law, sharpened men's intellects; travels into the East enlarged their knowledge of the earth; the use of the mariner's compass emboldened their navigation; gunpowder changed the face of war; paper, and at length the art of printing, gave a more rapid diffusion to knowledge; the taking of Constantinople scattered the learning of the Greeks over the West; schools and universities were numerous; men were become eager for knowledge;

classical learning was, in Italy, cultivated with ardour, and a strong feeling of admiration for the institutions and philosophy of antiquity excited; the discourses and writings of Wickliffe, Huss, and their disciples awakened beyond the Alps attention to the important topics of religion; the discovery of India and the New World filled men's minds with vague aspirations after adventure, conquest, wealth, and knowledge. A universal fermentation was going on.

Such was the state of the European mind at the commencement of modern history. The political condition of Europe was chiefly that of extensive monarchies, internally tranquil, and ready to turn their entire forces against each other. We will commence this part by a view of their respective conditions.

England.

The wars of the Roses had greatly thinned the English nobility and gentry: they were weary of civil conflict, and quietly submitted to the arbitrary rule of Henry VII. All the barriers of liberty erected under the Plantagenets were thrown down, and England became in this, and still more in the following reign, nearly an absolute monarchy. The daughters of Henry VII. were married, one to Louis XII. king of France, the other to the king of Scotland. Wales was incorporated with England; A. D. over Ireland she held a dubious dominion. Henry was 1509. succeeded by his son of the same name.

France.

All the great fiefs had been reunited to the crown. Flushed with power, her sovereign Charles VIII. now, at the invitation of Sforza duke of Milan, put forth his claims to the kingdom of Naples. At the head of 1495. 20,000 French, and 6000 Swiss, he speedily achieved the conquest of it. But the discontent of the Neapolitans, and the league of the pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Aragon and Castile, the Venetians,

and the duke of Milan, forced Charles to leave that kingdom. On the banks of the Tanaro, in the Parmesan, the allied forces waited for the enfeebled French army as it emerged from the passes of the Apennines. The French, with a loss of 200 men, routed three times their number, leaving 3000 of them on the plain.

A. D. 1498. Louis XII., named the Father of his People, asserted his claim to Milan and to Naples: he conquered them both, but was unable to retain them.

Germany.

493. Maximilian succeeded his father Frederic in the empire. By marriage with the heiress of Burgundy he got all the possessions of that house; and on the death of his cousin Sigismund archduke of Austria, the Austrian dominions fell to him. The diet of Worms, held during the reign of this emperor, established a perpetual public peace in Germany, by adopting vigorous measures for the suppression of private warfare, and by providing a paramount court of justice — the Imperial Chamber.

Russia, Poland, Scandinavia.

After casting off the yoke of the Tatars, the Russian princes exerted themselves to establish trade and com-
1505. munication with Western Europe: Vasilius kept up a good understanding with the emperor Maximilian, and granted great privileges to the Hanse towns.

The Poles and Russians now engaged in war with
1515. each other, and the former lost Smolensko and Pleskov.

In Scandinavia the contest for the independence of Sweden was prosecuted. The Russian tsar entered into a treaty of partition against Sweden, with Christian II. of Denmark.

Switzerland and Savoy.

1444. Louis XI., when dauphin, had led a body of troops into Switzerland, where the reception he met with, combined with the great victories of the Swiss over the duke of Burgundy, inspired him with such a respect for them.

that he all his life courted their alliance. His policy was followed by his successors. The Swiss now began to hire out their troops, and they played a conspicuous part in the wars of Italy. An attempt was made by the emperor Maximilian to revive the supremacy of the empire over the Swiss, and bring them under the jurisdiction of the imperial chamber; but in the war that ensued A. D. their success was decisive, and an honourable peace was 1499. made with them.

Savoy had been latterly enfeebled by minorities. Its dukes were rather good than great princes.

Italy.

Philip, the last of the vile race of the Visconti, dukes 1447. of Milan, left only an illegitimate daughter, married to Francesco Sforza, the great condottiere who commanded the troops of the duchy. Sforza made himself duke, 1450. and governed with prudence and justice. His son Galeazzo was murdered; but the widow, Bona of Savoy, 1478. maintained the duchy for her son John Galeazzo. Lodovico Moro, brother of the murdered prince, destroyed 1494. his nephew by a slow poison. Fearing the king of Naples, whose daughter had been married to John Galeazzo, he excited Charles VIII. of France to assert his claims, derived from the house of Anjou, to Naples, promising him the aid of himself and other Italian powers. But Sforza afterwards joined the league formed against Charles; and Louis XII. advanced his claims to the Milanese, derived from his grandmother Valentina Visconti. He conquered and held the duchy twelve years. 1500.

The house of Este governed as vassals of the empire, or the church, with ducal title, Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio; the Gonzaga family ruled at Mantua, the Pico at Mirandola, the Malaspina at Massa, the Grimaldi at Monaco.

At Rome, after some excellent, some indifferent popes, the papal chair was filled by Alexander VI., of the 1492. panish house of Borgia, a monster who might vie in vice with the Neros and Caligulas of ancient Rome. His only plan of politics was to secure a principality in

Italy for his enterprising son, Cæsar Borgia; and neither father nor son was deficient in the courage and iniquity requisite for the attainment of that object. Alexander was succeeded by the warlike Julius II., who added Bologna to the papal states.

Venice had acquired the kingdom of Cyprus: she was now at the zenith of her power; she carried on a lucrative trade with the East, and was highly favoured by the Mameluke sultans; she was rich, and her army was the best in Italy. The discovery of the route to India by the Portuguese, and the conquest of Egypt by the Ottomans, gave her prosperity its death-blow.

At Florence the wealthy and magnificent family of the Medici had been gradually increasing in influence. Cosimo de' Medici, called the Father of his Country, exerted a commanding influence in the state. After the death of his son Piero, a conspiracy was formed against his grandsons, and Julian was murdered, but Lorenzo escaped. The latter was afterwards restored to his country, and completed the destruction of its liberties. The independence of Florence, as it was to fall, could not
A. D. fall by a nobler hand. Lorenzo's patronage of literature
1492. and the arts is known to every one. His death was regarded as an event fatal to all Italy.

Louis XII. and Ferdinand of Spain having entered into a treaty for the conquest and partition of Naples, Frederic, the king of that country, could not resist such formidable opponents. Naples was speedily conquered. The French army was enfeebled by the climate and disease, and disliked by the people. The wily Ferdinand and his general, Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, took advantage of these circumstances to drive the French a second time out of that kingdom.

The League of Cambray.

1509. Louis XII., Maximilian, the king of Spain, and pope Julius II. entered at Cambray into a league against the Venetians. The republic opposed to them firmness in her senate, skill and courage in her generals, fidelity in her

subjects. Jealousy soon broke out among the confederates, and the emperor, the pope, the king of Spain united with the Swiss and the Venetians to drive the French out of Italy. Louis was forced to give way: the victory of the Swiss at Novara was decisive. Maximilian, the son of Lodovico Sforza, was restored to the dukedom of Milan. A. D. 1512.

Spain and Portugal.

Before the taking of Granada the execrable tribunal of the inquisition had been planned by the minister Mendoza, and by Salez bishop of Cadiz, and in spite of the opposition of the people, and, at the first, of the bigoted but humane queen Isabel, introduced into Castile. It was directed against the Jews; Torquemada, a Dominican, was the first great inquisitor; and the tribunal, in its first year, committed 2000 persons to the flames. Great opposition was made to it in Aragon; but it was introduced there by force of arms. Leon, Valencia, and Sicily resisted also, but with as little success. On the reduction of Granada, liberty of conscience had been secured to the Moors; but a council, presided over by the archbishops of Granada and Toledo, decided that Ferdinand and Isabel were not bound to keep faith with the infidels, and the Moors were brought within this sanguinary jurisdiction. The erection of this iniquitous tribunal, and its close alliance with the throne, have been the main cause of the future decline of Spain, and of her being at the present moment the most degraded of nations. 1477 1481.

Portugal was still in her golden age under Don Manuel, commencing her guilty but brilliant career in Asia.

Turkey.

Mohammed II. was succeeded by his son Bayezeed, a prince of mild, peaceable temper. After a reign of thirty years he was forced to resign his throne to his son Selim, one of the greatest and most cruel of the Ottoman monarchs. Selim commenced his reign by the murder 1512.

of his brothers and nephews, and the massacre of 40,000 Sheeahs, or dissenters from the orthodox faith, and he engaged in war with and defeated, at Chaldiran near Tebreez, shah Ismail, the founder of the Suffavee dynasty in Persia. By force and negotiation he made himself master of Koordistan and Mesopotamia. As Kansoo Ghawree, the Mameluke sultan of Egypt, was the ally of Ismail, war against him was resolved on by Selim. The Mameluke advanced at the head of his army to the frontiers
A. D. of Syria, and on the mead of Dabeek, not far from
1516. Aleppo, the hostile sultans engaged. The quantity of the Turkish artillery, and the inactivity of the Jelban (the second order of Egyptian troops), gave an easy victory to Selim. Ghawree, an old man of eighty years, died at a pool in the flight, and all Syria submitted. Peace was offered to and rejected by the new sultan, Toomawn Beg. Selim crossed the desert, and entered Egypt. The treachery of Ghazalee, one of Toomawn's generals, and the superiority of his artillery, gave Selim another victory at Ridania, near Cairo, which city was taken, after a gallant resistance, and 50,000 of its inhabitants barbarously massacred. After bravely but vainly fighting for his empire, the "valiant, chivalrous, humane, upright" Toomawn Beg was taken, and, at the suggestions of the traitors Ghazalee and Khair Beg,
1517. hanged at one of the gates of Cairo; and Egypt was reduced to a province. The last khalif of the house of Abbas was sent to Constantinople, but he died on the way. The Ottoman sultans have ever since taken that
1520. sacred title. Selim died, after a reign of eight years.

Persia.

During this period Persia witnessed a not unfrequent occurrence in the Mohammedan world—the erection of empire on the basis of religion. A family of sheikhs had long dwelt at Erdebil in that country. They passed their lives in the practice of that mystic contemplation called Sooffeeism, and derived their name of Suffavee from Suffee-ed-deen, one of the most distinguished of their

ancestors, who died in the beginning of the 14th century. At the close of the 15th century, Jooneid, one of them, began to meddle in politics, and he was driven from Erdebil by Jehan Shah, the descendant of Chingis, and then prince of the Black Wether. He took refuge with Uzun Hassan, the powerful chief of the White Wether, who gave him his sister in marriage. Under pretext of leading his followers against the infidel Georgians, he ravaged the country of the prince of Shirwan, against whom he fell in battle. His son Haider trod in his steps. He organised his followers, and made them wear for distinction red caps, whence they, and afterwards all the Persians, were called by the Turks, in derision, Kuzzil Bashes (*Red-heads*). He also attacked the prince of Shirwan and besieged him in his castle of Gulistan; but he fell in a conflict with the troops of Yacoob, prince of the Black Wether, who came to the relief of the besieged. His two sons were taken and confined; but Yacoob's successor gave them liberty. The eldest, rebelling, was slain; the younger, Ismail, then but seven years old, was saved by the prince of Ghilan. A. D. 1488.

In the 15th year of his age Ismail, at the head of 7000 of his adherents, made war on the prince of Shirwan, defeated him, and fixed his throne at Tebreez, the capital of Aderbijan. He next ravaged a part of the dominions of the peaceful Bayezeed II. The princes of the Black and the White Wether, and the shah of Mazenderan, were all vanquished by him. All the land from the Caspian to the Persian gulf obeyed him: he extended his conquests beyond the Oxus, and defeated the great khan of the Usbegs. His power was now at its zenith: he engaged in war with Selim I., under pretext of supporting the claims of Selim's nephews, and avenging the massacre of 40,000 Sheahs, slaughtered by order of the sultan. The Ottomans entered the Persian dominions: on the plains of Chaldiran, on the road to Tebreez, the armies of Ismail and Selim, each 120,000 in number, encountered: victory declared in favour of the Turkish artillery, and Tebreez was taken and plundered. 1501. 1514.

Want of supplies forced Selim to retreat, and Ismail
A. D. subdued Georgia. He died shortly afterwards, and was
1523. succeeded by his son, Tamasp.

CHAP. II.

TIMES OF CHARLES V.

Accession of Charles V.

In the commencement of the sixteenth century the largest empire that Europe has seen since the time of Charlemagne was ruled over by Charles, son of Philip, archduke of Austria, and Joanna, heiress of Ferdinand and Isabel of Spain. From his grandmother he inherited the rich dominions of the house of Burgundy in the Low Countries; the death of Ferdinand gave him Spain, Naples, Sicily, and the New World. On the
1519. death of his grandfather, Maximilian, he got the possessions of the house of Austria, and he and Francis, king of France, becoming candidates for the imperial dignity, the majority of the electors declared for Charles.

The Turks, under the warlike Selim I., were now the enemy dreaded by Europe; and the chief question with the electors had been, which of the rival monarchs would be best calculated to defend the empire against them: the circumstance of Charles's Austrian dominions had turned the beam in his favour. The only other power of consequence in Europe was England, now governed by the vain, capricious, haughty Henry VIII., but whose size and situation prevented her having any idea of extensive conquest. Charles, in the views of universal empire which he early conceived, had, therefore, apparently only Francis to impede him; but his own character, and the strength and resources of his kingdom, gave the latter such advantages, that only

ambition could have blinded the emperor to the plain fact, that France was then, as ever, unconquerable. But there was just at this period a moral power arising, more effectual to check the ambition of the emperor than even the chivalry of France. The great reformation of religion had now commenced.

The Reformation.

The eyes of men had been gradually opened to the frauds and corruptions of the Romish church, and the rapacity of the court of Rome had alienated the minds of princes and people. The awakened love of knowledge led men to aspire after freedom of thought, and to feel heavy the yoke which the church of Rome, though never less intolerant or arbitrary, imposed in all matters relating to religious doctrine. Mental emancipation was panted after. A proper occasion and a bold leader were all that were wanting to excite the flames of spiritual rebellion. The occasion was soon presented, and the leader appeared.

Leo X., of the family of the Medici, now filled the papal chair. Like his family, he was devoted to literature and pleasure, and tasteful and magnificent in his ideas and actions. It is not improbable that, as he is charged, he regarded the religion of which he was the head as merely a gainful fable; and as he was now engaged in rearing that splendid temple, the glory of modern Rome, he found it needful to put in practice every mode of raising money of which the papal chancery could furnish a precedent. The sale of indulgences appearing most likely to bring in a large supply, A. D. they were issued in great quantities, and the disposal of 1518 them committed to the most active agents. The Dominicans sold in Germany. The scandalous language and conduct of some of these men aroused the indignation of Dr. Martin Luther, an Augustinian, and professor of theology in the university of Wittenburg, in Saxony. He wrote and preached against indulgences; he was listened to with admiration: opposition excited

him; he had, though not profoundly learned, a strong sense of truth, and a vigorous imagination; his eloquence was popular, his command of his native tongue great; his soul was full of love to his country and mankind, and his courage in maintaining what he held to be true invincible. He read, he meditated, he entered into the spirit of the Scripture, and he felt how contrary to it were the practices and the claims of the church of Rome. He fearlessly expressed what he honestly thought; he was supported by his university and his prince, the elector of Saxony; he was summoned to Rome; but, at the request of the elector, cardinal Cajetan was sent to Germany, and Luther appeared and defended his opinions before the diet at Augsburg. When Charles obtained the empire, he was again summoned, and appeared before the diet at Worms. He was dismissed; and, under the protection of the elector of Saxony, he still continued to propagate his opinions through the north of Germany.

A. D. 1521.

1516. In Switzerland, Ulric Zuinglius, a priest at Zurich, had, even earlier than Luther, opposed the sale of indulgences by the Franciscans in that country. Not confining themselves to religious abuses, Zuinglius and his friends sought to unite religion with civil polity, and to preserve and exalt the tone of republican virtue and freedom. The opinions of the reformers rapidly spread into France, the Low Countries, and England, already prepared for them by Wickliffe and his disciples.

Wars of Charles V. and Francis I.

1515. Francis, count of Angoulême, on succeeding his father-in-law, the late king Louis XII., was eager to signalise himself in the eyes of the world. He turned his views towards Italy, and resolved to recover Milan. The Swiss guarded the passes of the Alps against him: on hearing of his having entered boldly into Piedmont, they descended, and encountered the arms of France in the plain; and modern times have witnessed few such obstinate conflicts as that which ensued on the field of

Marignano, near Milan. The battle lasted two days, and the Swiss did not retire till one half of their number was slain. All the Milanese now surrendered; Sforza resigned his claim for a pension, and Francis returned home, leaving Charles duke of Bourbon governor. The emperor Maximilian invaded Italy, but was repulsed, and he then made peace with France and Venice. A.D. 1516.

The competition for the empire caused ill will between Charles and Francis: each sought to gain Henry VIII. and his minister Wolsey. The art of the emperor prevailed over the frankness and generosity of the French king.

The Spaniards were in rebellion; Francis seized the opportunity of recovering for John d'Albret Navarre, which Ferdinand had unjustly seized. A French army entered and conquered it; but, venturing to advance into Spain, it was defeated, and Navarre recovered. Francis invaded the Low Countries without advantage. A league was now formed, between the pope, Henry VIII., and Charles, against the king of France. The Milanese, disgusted with the insolence and exactions of the French, resolved to expel them, and put themselves under Francis Sforza, brother to their late duke. The pope hired Swiss, and formed an army under Prosper Colonna to assist them. The French were defeated; Lautrec, their commander, fled to Venice, and they lost every thing but Cremona, the castle of Milan, and a few other places. Joy at this success is said to have terminated the life of Leo X. 1522.

Francis sent money and 10,000 Swiss to Lautrec, who invaded the Milanese, but was defeated at Bicocca. Genoa, which was under the protection of France, was taken by Colonna, and the French now retained only Cremona. The new pope, Adrian VI., the Venetians, 1523. the Florentines, and the other Italian powers, joined in the league against Francis, who was now without an ally; and the emperor and the king of England were preparing to invade France on the south, north, and

east. To add to the French king's difficulties, a conspiracy of the constable of Bourbon, who had been most iniquitously deprived of his estates by the malice of the king's mother, was discovered, and the delay occasioned by it prevented his heading the army he had assembled. He, however, sent 30,000 men, under admiral Bonnivet, into Italy. Colonna, who commanded in Milan, dying at this time, was succeeded by Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, who was chiefly directed by the duke of Bourbon (who had escaped and entered
A D. the emperor's service), and the marquis of Pescara.
1524. Bonnivet was defeated at the Sesia. In this battle fell the celebrated chevalier Bayard.

1525. Having been successful against the armies which invaded France, the passion for recovering the Milanese seized the French monarch. He marched at the head of a large army into Italy; every place submitted: he sat down before Pavia, a town well garrisoned, and commanded by Leyva, one of the ablest Spanish officers. It was winter: every exertion was made by the imperial generals to collect an army; fatigue and the rigour of the season reduced that of the French, weakened by a large part of it having been sent against Naples. The imperial army approached; prudence counselled retreat; romantic honour determined the king to stay. The imperialists attacked the French in their intrenchments; the garrison made a sally; the Swiss deserted their post; the rout became general; and Francis, after beholding the flower of his nobility perish by his side, was forced to surrender himself a prisoner. (Feb. 2.)

In a few weeks not a Frenchman was to be seen in Italy. Francis was rigorously confined: hard terms were proposed to him, but indignantly rejected. When taken, he had written to his mother the regent, "All is lost but our honour;" and she exerted herself with vigour to put the kingdom into a posture of defence. Henry VIII., now alive to the danger of Charles acquiring a preponderating power, listened to her proposals of an alliance, to which he was stimulated by Wolsey, whom Charles

had hitherto cajoled by a promise of the papacy, but who had now learned how little reliance was to be placed on the word of that monarch.

Francis, at his own desire, had been removed to Madrid. It was long before he could get a sight of the emperor; but when he threatened to resign in favour of the dauphin, and had fallen into ill health, Charles, who found that if he died he should lose all the advantages he proposed to derive from his captivity, and who also dreaded a confederacy against him, lowered his demands; and a treaty was signed at Madrid, by which A. D. Francis agreed to surrender Burgundy, and to give his 1526. two sons as hostages till it was performed. The exchange was made on the frontiers, and Francis set at liberty. The states of Burgundy being assembled, protested against this surrender of their province; the pope, Clement VII., absolved the king from the oath taken at Madrid; and he and the kings of France and England, the Swiss, Venetians, Florentines, and Milanese, entered into an alliance, called the Holy League, to oblige the emperor to give up the sons of Francis for a reasonable ransom, and to reinstate Sforza in the duchy of Milan.

The confederates took the field in Italy; but, Francis neglecting to send sufficient reinforcements, Bourbon overran the Milanese; and his troops beginning to mutiny for want of pay, he led them to Rome. In the assault on that city (May 6.), Bourbon himself was slain; but Rome was taken, and experienced from the troops of the pious Charles such calamities as had never been inflicted by any of her barbarian conquerors in 1527. former times. The pope himself was besieged in the castle of St. Angelo, and forced to surrender. He was put into close confinement till he should pay an enormous ransom. The hypocritical Charles put his court into mourning, and ordered prayers to be offered up for his release, which he might have accomplished by a single line. Henry and Francis were preparing to invade the Low Countries. On hearing of the pope's

captivity, they changed the scene of war: Henry supplied money, and Francis sent an army into Italy under Lautrec. The pope was set at liberty; but Lautrec dying, and Doria, the Genoese admiral, persuading his countrymen to revolt, the affairs of the allies declined, and the French army was ruined before Naples.

Suleiman, the great Turkish sultan, had now overrun Hungary, and threatened the Austrian dominions; the reformation was making great progress in Germany;
A. D. Charles was, therefore, as well inclined to peace as his
1529. adversaries. Margaret of Austria, aunt of the emperor, and Louisa, mother of Francis, met at Cambray, and settled the terms of peace between them. Francis agreed to pay 2,000,000 crowns as a ransom for his sons, to give up all claims on Italy, and to resign the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois: Charles abandoned all claim to Burgundy.

The Italian states were not satisfied at being abandoned to the emperor; but the dread of the Turks made him act with some generosity. He pardoned Sforza, and restored to him the duchy of Milan; but the Florentines were reduced under the dominion of the house of Medici.

Affairs of Germany.

While Charles was engaged in the Italian wars, the opinions of the reformers had spread rapidly in Germany. While at enmity with the pope, the emperor was not very anxious to discourage them; but now, apprehending danger from them to the imperial authority, he resolved to take measures for their suppression. A
1529. diet was, therefore, convoked at Spire, which confirmed the edict of that of Worms against Luther, and forbade any farther innovation in religion. Against this decree, the elector of Saxony, the landgraf of Hesse, the duke of Lüneburg, the prince of Anhalt, and the deputies of fourteen cities, *protested;* and hence they, and the reformed in general, were called PROTESTANTS.

1530. Charles returned to Germany, and assisted at a diet

at Augsburg; at which the confession of faith of the Protestants was read and defended by Melancthon and others. A decree was issued against them, and coercive measures resolved on. The Protestant princes met at Smalcalde, and entered into a league for mutual defence, and a secret alliance with the kings of France and England. The Turks were now menacing Hungary, and Charles saw that this was no time for violent measures. A treaty was, therefore, concluded, in which he granted the Protestants liberty of conscience till the meeting of a general council, and they engaged to assist him against the Turks.

A. D.
Sulciman entered Hungary at the head of 200,000 1532.
men. Charles took the command of 80,000 foot and 20,000 horse, besides a vast body of irregulars, near Vienna. The sultan retired; and Charles returned to Spain, and engaged in a successful expedition against Tunis. While he was absent, the sect of the Anabaptists seized on the city of Münster, and defended it for some time courageously against the troops of the 1535.
bishop.

Renewed War with France.

While Charles was in Africa, Francis revived his claim on Italy. The king of England, engaged about his divorce from Catherine of Aragon, declined having to do with the affairs of the continent; and the league of Smalcalde, indignant at the cruelties inflicted on some Protestants in Paris, refused to unite with Francis. The latter resolved, even without allies, to venture on war, under pretence of chastising the duke of Milan for the murder of his ambassador. He approached Italy; but instead of entering the Milanese, he seized a great part of the dominions of the duke of Savoy, who appealed in vain to Charles, whose exchequer was now completely empty. Meantime Sforza died without issue, and the rights, which had only been surrendered to him and his heirs, returned to Francis. Instead, however, of entering at once on the duchy, he wasted his time in nego-

tiation, while Charles took possession of it as a vacant fief of the empire, though still pretending to own the equity of the claims of the French monarch.

A. D.
1536. The emperor having now procured sufficient supplies of money, resolved on attempting the conquest of France. Having driven the French out of Savoy, he invaded the southern provinces at the head of 50,000 men. Two other armies were ordered to enter Picardy and Champagne. The system adopted by Francis was defensive. From the Alps and Dauphiné to Marseilles and the sea the country was laid waste; strong garrisons placed in Arles and Marseilles; one French army strongly encamped near Avignon, another at Valence. After fruitlessly investing Arles and Marseilles, and spending two months in Provence, Charles retreated with the loss of one half of his troops by disease and famine. An attempt by Francis on the Low Countries, was followed by a truce
1538. at Nice under the mediation of the pope Paul III.

The emperor suppressed an insurrection which had broken out in the city of Ghent; but he was forced to make concessions to the protestants in Germany, to gain their assistance against Suleiman, who had seized a part of Hungary. But the favourite object of Charles was the conquest of Algiers; and in the end of autumn he, contrary to the advice of Doria his admiral, landed in Africa with a large army; but tempests scattered his fleet and destroyed his soldiers, and he was forced to
1541. reimbark, with the loss of the greater part of his men.

1542. The war between the rival monarchs broke out anew. The emperor was supported by the king of England and the protestant princes, to whom he had made farther concessions. Francis was allied with the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and he renewed the treaty he had formerly made with Suleiman. During two years France, Spain, Italy, and the Low Countries were the scenes of
1544. war; but the only battle of consequence was that of Cerisoles, gained by the French, in which 10,000 imperialists fell. A peace was concluded at Crespi. The chief articles were, that the emperor should give one of

his own or his brother Ferdinand's daughters to the duke of Orleans, second son of Francis, and with her the duchy of Milan, and renounce all claim to Burgundy; Francis doing the same to Naples, Artois, and Flanders; and that they should unite against the Turks.

Affairs of Germany.

Charles was chiefly led to make the peace of Crespi by his desire to humble the protestant princes, and extend his power in the empire. He therefore made also a dishonourable truce with Suleiman, and entered into an alliance with the pope. A general council had been assembled at Trent; but the protestants, seeing the composition of it, refused to submit to its decrees. Charles, as his schemes were not fully ripe, sought still to cajole them; but they saw through his views, and had recourse to arms. Unable to resist them, he negotiated till he had collected an army; but he still declined a battle. Meantime Maurice marquis of Misnia and Thuringia, a protestant prince who had not joined the confederates, secretly agreed to assist the emperor, on condition of getting the dignities and territory of his relative the elector of Saxony. He therefore entered and overran the electorate. The elector returned with his troops to defend his dominions; the city of Ulm submitted; its example was followed by others, and the whole confederacy fell to pieces, leaving the elector of Saxony and the landgraf of Hesse at the mercy of the emperor. A. D. 1547.

The pope, meantime, seeing the ultimate and real designs of the emperor, withdrew his troops, and Francis negotiated an alliance with him, Suleiman, England, and Venice, and encouraged and assisted with money the elector and the landgraf. A conspiracy, headed by Fiesco, broke out at Genoa, and every thing seemed to combine to throw Charles into perplexity, when the death of Francis, and the suppression of Fiesco's conspiracy, encouraged him to proceed with vigour in Germany. The elector was defeated and taken prisoner at Mulhausen, and obliged to resign the electoral dignity;

the landgraf of Hesse, who was father-in-law to Maurice, submitted, on the elector of Brandenburg and Maurice becoming securities for his personal freedom; but Charles, in contempt of them, made him a close prisoner. All the members of the Smalcaldic league were treated with the greatest rigour.

Charles now thought he might proceed without opposition in enslaving the German nation. As the council had been removed from Trent to Bologna, and he could not now expect to influence it as he desired, he protested against it, and had a system of doctrine drawn up and presented to the diet at Augsburg, to be conformed to till a proper council could be called. This system, called the *Interim*, sought to steer between the two parties, leaning, however, greatly to the church of Rome. It gave great offence at Rome, and could not be fully carried into effect in Germany. Shortly afterwards, Charles made a stretch of power even beyond establishing the Interim. When pressed to set the landgraf of Hesse at liberty, he, by a public deed, annulled the bond which his securities had entered into with him. This began to open the eyes of the German princes, and they now manifested a spirit of resistance. His brother Ferdinand had been made king of the Romans by his influence; but, anxious to transmit the empire to his son Philip, he tried to make the electors recall their choice, or at least place Philip next in succession to his uncle; but the opposition made was so strong, that he was obliged to abandon his design.

A. D. 1548.

The Lutheran princes were now fully aware of the designs of the emperor, and Maurice saw that it was necessary to set bounds to them. Equal to Charles himself in dissimulation, he secretly made preparation against him, without losing his confidence. He contrived to get himself appointed general of the imperial army, sent to force the people of Magdeburg to submit to the Interim, and after that object was effected, he, under various pretences, still kept that army in his pay. Charles, meanwhile, was residing at Inspruck, entirely

occupied with the council, which had been brought back to Trent. Neither he nor Granville, his subtle prime minister, had any suspicion of the designs of Maurice, who had now formed a treaty with Henry II. of France.

Having completed his preparations, he sent an embassy to demand the liberty of the landgraf. It was refused. An army of 20,000 foot and 2000 horse being assembled, Maurice threw off the mask, and assigned his reasons for taking arms; namely, to secure the protestant religion; to maintain the German constitution; to deliver the landgraf of Hesse from prison. The king of France added a manifesto, in which he styled himself *Protector of the Liberties of Germany and its captive Princes.*

The French troops having overrun Lorraine, Maurice traversed rapidly Upper Germany: the emperor negotiated. Maurice advanced with all the speed he could make; and was so near surprising the emperor, that he was obliged to fly into the Alps in a litter, in the midst of a dark rainy night. The council of Trent broke up, and did not reassemble. A conference was held at Passau: the terms proposed in the name of the princes of the empire were rejected by the emperor. Maurice laid siege to Frankfort on the Main, and the haughty spirit of Charles was forced to bend. The treaty of Passau overthrew the fabric he had so long been raising, and placed the protestant religion of Germany on a secure basis. A. D. 1552

His usual good fortune was now deserting Charles; he raised a large army, entered Lorraine, and laid siege to Metz; but was forced to abandon it with the loss of 30,000 men: he lost the footing he had established in Tuscany: the coast of Naples was ravaged by the Turkish fleet. In the following year he had some success in the Low Countries; but the Austrians were unfortunate in Hungary. Germany was now so tranquil, that a diet assembled at Augsburg, and by what is called the Recess of Augsburg established religious peace in Germany, to the satisfaction of all parties. 1555

A. D.
1556. To the surprise of all Europe, Charles abdicated his throne; and, resigning his dominions to his son Philip, retired to spend the evening of his life in the monastery of St. Just in Spain. Having made a vain attempt to induce his brother Ferdinand to resign the dignity of king of the Romans, he left all his other dominions to Philip, now married to Mary queen of England, and formed for him a truce with France for five years. Ferdinand was chosen emperor by the electors.

England.

During the reign of Charles V., England was governed by Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary. Henry
1533. broke with the court of Rome, and seized on the monastic estates: he exercised over his people the most arbitrary power that Europe, perhaps, has ever witnessed. Not merely his will, but his caprice, was law; he dictated in religion, and murdered under form of justice. In his foreign wars he made small and useless acquisitions at
1513. vast expense. The victory of Flodden Field, gained in the early part of his reign over the Scots, whose king, James IV., fell in the field, was the greatest achieved in
1547. this period by the English arms. Under Edward VI. the protestant religion was much favoured; but his sister
1553. Mary, a bigoted papist, and wife of the dark, malignant Philip, exercised such cruelties against the professors of the reformed faith, as have affixed in the minds of posterity eternal odium to her name and the religion she professed. In her reign Calais, which England had held since the reign of Edward III., was surprised and
1557. taken by the duke of Guise.

Spain and Portugal.

The commons of Spain made a stand in favour of their hereditary liberties, and they rose in arms against the despotism of the emperor, under the command of the brave Padilla; but the nobles not joining them, as, if they had known their true interest, they should

have done, the commons were crushed, and the liberties of Spain have been ever since in abeyance.

By the talents, the valour, and the barbarous cruelty of Cortes and Pizarro, the empires of Mexico and Peru were at this time subjected to Spain.

Don John III. of Portugal was a well-intentioned prince, anxious for the improvement of justice and religion. Disgusted with the corruption of the clergy, he introduced into his dominions the new society of the Jesuits, now in the fervour of their first zeal. Unfortunately he introduced the horrible inquisition also.

The Portuguese power was, meantime, under the valour and the ability of the great Albuquerque, Almeida, Castro, and others, extended from the gulf of Persia to the isles of Japan. At no period have greater actions been achieved: unhappily, they were disgraced by a spirit of savage cruelty and unprincipled rapacity.

Italy.

In the holy see the polished Leo X. was succeeded by the honest, well-meaning Adrian VI. It then passed to the timid, uncertain Clement VII., a Medici: next to the designing Paul III., only concerned to aggrandize the Farnesi, his own family: then to the lavish and tasteful Julius III.; and, finally, to Paul IV., an aged monk, who fancied himself possessed of the power of a Gregory or an Innocent, and that the 16th century might be treated like the 13th.

In Florence, Piero, son of Lorenzo de' Medici, had given up Pisa and Leghorn to the French, when A. D. 1494. Charles VIII. invaded Italy. He was in consequence forced to leave the city; his palaces were plundered, and a price set on the head of the Medici. The old republican tumults ensued. Julian and John, the brothers of 1512. Piero, now dead, were restored by the Spanish arms at the desire of pope Julius II.; and John succeeding that pope under the name of Leo X., his influence strengthened his brother, and, after the death of Julian, his nephew Lo- 1516. renzo, son of Piero. Lorenzo, equal to any of his family in the qualities that distinguished them, had meditated

the extension of his power from sea to sea; but his early death, in his 27th year, cut short all his great projects. He left an only child, the celebrated Catherine, afterwards queen of France.

Julius, the natural son of the brother of Lorenzo, who was murdered by the Pazzi, took the government. A conspiracy was formed against his power; but he was supported by the emperor. He became pope as Clement VII.; and Alexander, his own or Lorenzo II.'s natural son, governed Florence. He was obliged to fly when the pope was besieged by the army of Bourbon; but when Clement made peace with the emperor, Charles gave his natural daughter Margaret in marriage to Alexander, and engaged to restore him to the wealth and power of his family. Florence resisted; and after the peace of Cambray the imperial arms besieged it for ten months, and forced it to surrender, and the emperor declared Alexander hereditary duke of Florence. The
A. D. rule of this protégé of the pope and the emperor was, as
1537. was to be expected, tyrannical and oppressive. His death was owing to his vices. His cousin Lorenzino de' Medici, who had been the ready agent of his lust, resolved to destroy him. Under pretext of putting him in possession of the person of a lady whose beauty had inflamed him, he decoyed him to his house, where he secretly murdered him. Lorenzino fled to Venice: the better disposed citizens wished to re-establish the republic, but the Medici party forced the senate to declare duke Cosimo, descended from a brother of the first Cosimo. A subtle, cruel, and ungrateful tyrant, Cosimo oppressed the people, and banished those to whom he owed his power. He
1557. was himself but the mere slave of Spain. Cosimo added Sienna to his dominions, and in 1569 the pope, Pius V., conferred on him the title of Great Duke of Tuscany.

Genoa had, on account of her internal dissensions, put herself under the protection of France, and her nobles had served in the army of Francis I. She did not by this expedient escape the turbulence of the Adorni and Fregosi, whose feuds ran as high as ever. Andrew Doria determined to be the Timoleon of his country.

A D.
He formed a league with Charles V., entered the port of 1528.
Genoa, proclaimed an amnesty, broke up the parties, and new modelled the government, excluding only the Adorni and Fregosi from office. Doria sought neither power nor reward for himself; he never bore the office of doge. He died, honoured and lamented, in his 94th year. 1560.

Venice remained the most independent state in Italy, and was always on good terms with Charles V., by whose territories she was now nearly surrounded. The popes had brought Bologna, Ravenna, and Ancona fully under their power. Parma and Piacenza were, with the consent of Charles V., given by Paul III. to his son Piero Farnese, and on his death to Ottavio Farnese, 1547.
married to a natural daughter of the emperor. Ottavio was succeeded by Alexander, the celebrated general of Philip II.

Italy was now tranquil; all her states either belonged to or were in amity and alliance with Spain. She had no disturbances to dread; her ancient spirit declined; she sank into luxury, occupied in the enjoyment of her arts and natural advantages.

Denmark and Sweden.

These countries do not yet enter on the great theatre of Europe. Christian II. had proved victorious, by the employment of treachery and force, in the struggle for Swedish independence. He was crowned at Stockholm, and he and his confederate, the archbishop of Upsala, by an almost unparalleled piece of perfidy, publicly executed ninety-four of the Swedish nobles. But Gustavus Vasa, the son of one of those who were murdered, escaped from the prison in which he was confined, roused the miners of Dalecarlia to take arms for their country, and was successful in his first attempts; gradually all the people rose against the tyrant, Gustavus was elected king of 1523.
Sweden, and he governed with wisdom and good policy. Gustavus established the Lutheran religion in Sweden, 1560.
over which he reigned 37 years.

Christian II. was for his tyranny deposed, and the

crown given to his uncle Frederic duke of Holstein, who
A. D. entered into an alliance with Gustavus and the Hanse
1533. towns against the deposed tyrant. Frederic's son, Christian III., was one of the best princes of the age. He also established the Lutheran religion in his dominions.
559. He died a year before Gustavus.

Turkey.

520. Suleiman I., called by the Christians the Great, and the Magnificent, by his own subjects the Lawgiver (*Kanooni*), the greatest of the Ottoman monarchs, succeeded his father Selim. In the first year of his reign a war broke out with Hungary, in which Belgrade and
1522. other fortresses were taken by the Ottomans. The following year the island of Rhodes was conquered, after a most gallant defence made by the knights of St. John. In the second Hungarian campaign of Suleiman he took Peterwaradin, and the Hungarian king, Ladislaus, lost the
1526. battle and his life on the plain of Mohacs, and Ofen, the capital of Hungary, opened her gates. In a third Hun-
1529. garian campaign Ofen was taken by storm, Vienna was besieged; but Suleiman was forced to retire from before
1532. its walls. Suleiman again invaded Hungary at the head of 200,000 men; but he was unable to overcome the
1534. resistance of the town of Güns. A war with Persia, in which Tebreez was again taken, and which gave Bagdad to Suleiman, next followed.

Khair-ed-deen Barbarossa, the celebrated corsair, con-
1535. quered Tunis for Suleiman; but it was retaken, and restored to Muley Hassan, by the emperor Charles V. Suleiman next conquered the isles of the Archipelago, and he fitted out a fleet in the Red Sea, to oppose the Por-
1547. tuguese in India. Two more campaigns against Hungary followed, and peace was at length concluded with Ferdinand and the emperor; but war soon broke out again. A large fleet and army were sent against Malta, which the emperor had given to the knights of St. John;
1565. but the valour of the knights forced them to retire with disgrace. Suleiman, the greatest of the Ottoman sultans,

headed his armies in thirteen campaigns, and gave the empire its greatest extent, at which it continued for more than a century ere it began to decrease. Genius and learning were encouraged by this munificent prince, whose reign was the Augustan age of Turkey; but the deaths of no less than ten princes of the blood, most of them his sons and grandchildren, fix an indelible stain on his memory.

CHAP. III.

TIMES OF PHILIP II.

State of Europe at Philip's Accession.

No monarch ever ascended a throne with fairer prospects than Philip II.; none ever had himself more thoroughly to blame for the extinction of his brightest hopes. His father had left him Spain, humbled under absolute power, but not yet degraded by it, Milan, Naples, and Sicily, the Netherlands, Mexico, and Peru, now in the vigour of their gold and silver harvest; he was married to the queen of England; his uncle was emperor of Germany, king of Bohemia and Hungary, and possessor of the Austrian dominions. Genoa and the catholic cantons of Switzerland were allied with Spain; Venice feared her; the pope was obliged to support a prince who proclaimed himself the defender of the faith. His nephew, Sebastian king of Portugal, was a child. France, after the death of Henry II., had fallen into weakness and confusion. Suleiman had been succeeded by Selim, a weak unenterprising prince. Finally, the Spanish armies were still the first in Europe, and were commanded by the duke of Savoy, Don John of Austria, and the prince of Parma, three of the greatest generals of the age.

Philip's own character, thoughtful, reserved, patient, indefatigable, might seem well calculated to make the most of all these advantages; but it was the very defect of his character that lost him them all. A gloomy superstition pervaded every region of his mind, and tinged every thought. Religion, with him, was the one thing needful; but his religion consisted in external observances, and in the belief of the absurdest doctrines of popery. Steadfastness in this religion justified every crime; nothing was to stand in the way of his plan of reducing the Christian world under the one faith and the one master. And all was sacrificed to this chimæra.

The first operations of Philip's reign were fortunate. The pope insisted on Henry II. not adhering to the truce of Vaucelles; the war was renewed, and Philip's able general, Philibert duke of Savoy, gained the battle of St. Quintin. The Spanish arms were every where successful, and the pope and Henry were glad to treat of peace; a measure grateful to Philip, who was anxious to return to Spain, and who had all along had his doubts of the lawfulness of bearing arms against the pope. Mary of England was at this time dead, and her sister Elizabeth had ascended the throne. Philip and Henry were suitors for the favour of the young queen; the former sought her hand. All parties were anxious
A. D. for peace. A treaty was, therefore, easily entered into
1559. at Château Cambresis; and as almost all the states of Europe were included in it as principals or allies, a general peace and repose was produced by it.

Charles V. had died the year before; Mary of England was dead; Henry II. was killed at a tournament shortly after the peace; the restless Paul IV. survived him but a few weeks. A new set of actors enter on the scene.

France.

Henry II. was succeeded by his eldest son, Francis II., the husband of Mary the young queen of Scotland. Protestantism had made considerable progress in France.

The king of Navarre, the prince of Condé, the admiral Coligni, his brother Andelot, and several other persons of the highest rank, were attached to the reformed faith.

The powerful family of Guise, princes of Lorraine, uncles to the young queen, supported the old religion. Francis was persuaded by them to revive the laws against heresy. The protestants (in France called Huguenots) saw their danger, and resolved to anticipate it. A conspiracy was formed to seize the king. It was detected, and the accomplices punished. But an assembly of the states was held, and the penal laws suspended. The Guises, however, resolved to proceed, and the king of Navarre and his brother the prince of Condé were seized and imprisoned. The sudden death of Francis checked their career. His young brother, Charles IX., came to the throne, and the queen-mother was appointed guardian. As "*divide and govern*" was the maxim of Catherine, she gave high office and power to the protestant leaders, as a counterpoise to the influence of the Guises. A. D. 1560.

The policy of the queen did not produce the desired effect. Animosity ran high between the two parties. The attendants of the duke of Guise insulted some protestants at their worship, and sixty of the latter were slain. The protestants all over France took arms; fourteen armies were levied in different parts of the kingdom. The conflict was carried on with the most extreme virulence. Several of the principal cities of France, as Orleans, Rouen, Bourges, Lyons, Tours, were in the hands of the Huguenots. Philip of Spain sent 6000 men to aid the catholics. Condé, the head of the protestants, addressed himself to Elizabeth, queen of England, and an army was levied in Germany by Andelot and led to Orleans. The king of Navarre and Montmorency had joined the Guise party: the former was killed at the siege of Rouen; the latter commanded at the battle of Dreux, the first fought between the parties. 1562.

The duke of Guise laid siege to Orleans. While engaged in it, he was assassinated by a protestant gentleman named 1563.

Poltrot. His death was an irreparable loss to his party, and they now willingly came to an accommodation with the protestants.

But the peace was intended only to lull the protestants. Catherine, though utterly devoid of principle, had a hatred of the reformed faith, and a zeal for the ancient one. A meeting was concerted at Bayonne between Charles and his sister, the queen of Spain. Catherine accompanied her son; the duke of Alva attended his mistress. Festivities and gaieties of every kind occupied each day. All apparently respired joy and peace: but the tempest was secretly brewed in the summer sky. A *Holy League* was formed between the courts of France
A. D. and Spain: the glory of God was to be promoted,
1566. heresy in the dominions of both extirpated.

The protestants of France soon learned what had been concerted. They flew to arms; a battle was fought
1568. at St. Denis, in which they were worsted. They laid siege to Chartres, and forced the court to agree to a peace. This peace was of short duration: the queen-mother laid a scheme for seizing Condé and Coligni; they fled to Rochelle; the war was renewed. The duke of Anjou commanded the catholics, and gained the famous battle
1569. of Jarnac, in which the prince of Condé was taken and murdered. Coligni having placed at the head of the protestants the young king of Navarre and the young prince of Condé, made every effort to animate his party, and at length laid siege to Poitiers. The young duke of Guise threw himself into that town, and defended it with such valour and skill, that Coligni was forced to raise the siege. Secretly aided by Elizabeth, he collected a considerable force; but at the battle of Moncontour he was wounded and defeated with the loss of nearly 10,000 men. The court deemed the adverse party now completely crushed, when, to their amazement, Coligni advanced with a large army, and prepared to lay siege to Paris, and the king was forced to make another treaty and peace with the protestants.

The treachery long meditated against the protestants

was now ripe. Charles assumed the appearance of the utmost liberality of sentiment: a marriage was proposed between his sister Margaret and the young king of Navarre. All the great leaders of the protestants went to Paris to the celebration of it. They were received with smiles and caresses by the king and the queen-mother; all was festivity till the eve of St. Bartholomew (Aug. 24.) arrived, when, by the secret orders of the king, a bloody and indiscriminate massacre of the protestants commenced. No rank or age was spared; 500 gentlemen, including Coligni, and 10,000 inferior persons, perished in Paris alone, and a like carnage took place in all the great towns of the kingdom whither similar orders had been sent. It is computed that 60,000 persons were massacred. A. D. 1572.

The protestants throughout Europe were filled with horror and consternation. At Rome and Spain the account was received with ecstasy, and public thanks returned to heaven. But Charles did not dare to avow his real motives; he pretended that a conspiracy of the protestants had been detected, and thus prevented. Instead of losing courage, these now only respired vengeance. They took valiantly to their arms: the town of Sancerre stood a memorable siege. Rochelle held out eight months against the whole power of France; and the duke of Anjou, after losing 24,000 men before it, was compelled to grant the citizens an advantageous peace. 1573.

This was the fourth peace; but the protestants could put no trust in the perfidious monarch. They rejoiced at his death, which soon afterwards occurred. He was succeeded by his brother, the duke of Anjou, Henry III., who had been elected king of Poland. Henry, by the advice of his mother, sought to play the parties against each other, and thereby increase the royal authority. He gave most advantageous terms to the protestants, now headed by his brother, the duke of Anjou, and the young king of Navarre. The catholic party, directed by the duke of Guise, were disgusted by this measure: they 1574. 1576.

A. D.
1577. formed their celebrated LEAGUE; and the king, to weaken it, declared himself the head of it. The war was renewed; but soon terminated by a new peace. The League looked up to Philip, the Huguenots to Elizabeth: the king, sunk in pleasure and in odious vices, was despised and distrusted by both parties. The duke of Anjou was a restless ambitious prince: his death seemed to relieve the king from difficulties; but it only plunged him into greater. The king of Navarre was now the next heir; the League was revived; the cardinal of Bourbon set up as a rival to the king of Navarre; and the king forced to declare war against the Huguenots. Great valour and talent were displayed by the king of Navarre. At Cou-
1587. tras he gained a complete victory over the royal army; but the power of the League was still an overmatch for the Huguenots. The king was driven from Paris, and threatened with degradation from his throne; his spirit was roused, and he caused the duke and the cardinal of Guise to be assassinated. The doctors of the Sorbonne declared the people released from their allegiance; and the duke of Mayenne, brother to the duke of Guise, was
1589. chosen *Lieutenant-general of the State royal and Crown of France.* The king entered into an alliance with the king of Navarre, and both sovereigns advanced to Paris at the head of their armies. James Clement, a Dominican monk, here assassinated the king, with whom ended the line of Valois. The holy deed was, as usual, applauded throughout the catholic world; and Sixtus V. compared it with the Incarnation and the Resurrection.

The royal army abandoned the king of Navarre, now Henry IV., and the League proclaimed the cardinal of Bourbon, under the name of Charles X. Henry retired to Normandy, followed by the troops of the League, under the duke of Mayenne. The queen of England sent him troops and money. His forces were inferior in number, but superior in valour, to those of the duke;
1590. and at Ivry he gained a complete victory over him and his Spanish auxiliaries. Henry soon afterwards invested Paris; the duke of Parma hastened from the Low Coun-

tries to its relief; the siege was raised; but the duke declined the proffered battle. Some fresh attempts on Paris were baffled; the duke of Parma left 8000 men with the League; the pope ordered all the catholics to abandon Henry, and sent money and troops to the duke of Savoy, who had made himself master of Provence; the young duke of Guise made his escape from Tours. Elizabeth, on the other hand, again sent troops and money; Henry laid siege to Rouen; but the prince of Parma forced him to raise it, and again retreated without fighting. Lesdiguieres chased the duke of Savoy out of Provence; and victories were gained by Turenne, and other generals of Henry.

A. D. 1593. At length all parties grew weary of the war; the duke of Mayenne was disgusted by the faction of the Sixteen in Paris, who were entirely in the Spanish interest; Henry was pressed by the catholics of his party to declare himself on the article of religion, a thing he had hitherto avoided doing; the king of Spain, too, pressed the duke of Mayenne to call a meeting of the states, hoping to gain the crown for his own daughter Isabella. The states met; Philip's ambassador exerted himself in vain to get a declaration in favour of the infanta; the parliament of Paris declared that the Salic law could not be set aside.

Meanwhile Henry, though successful in arms, saw that he never could obtain the kingdom by force; and, with the consent of his wisest friends, he embraced the catholic religion. This measure was not at first productive of all the advantages that might have been expected: both parties were distrustful; but gradually town after town and noble after noble submitted to their king. He led an army into Burgundy, expelled the Spaniards, and obliged the duke of Mayenne to seek an accommodation; he received the pope's absolution; the duke of Guise, now his friend, surprised Marseilles; the duke of Mayenne submitted, and continued ever after warmly attached to his person and government; but the archduke Albert surprised Calais; the Spanish

governor of Dourlens took Amiens; and the French finances were in so dilapidated a state, that Henry could not raise an army. The prudence and ability of the great
A. D. Sully enabled him at last to take the field at the head of
1597. a well-appointed army of more than 20,000 men; and, in spite of the efforts of Albert, Amiens was forced to surrender.

The duke of Mercœur was still in arms in Britany Henry marched against him; but the duke offering his only daughter and a large dower to king Henry's natural son, the proposal was accepted, and the duke submitted. All France now cheerfully obeyed its lawful monarch. To dissipate the apprehensions of the Huguenots, Henry summoned the heads of them to Nantes, and gave the celebrated edict named from that
1598. town, which secured them the exercise of their religion, and declared them eligible to all places of trust, profit, and honour. Peace was now absolutely necessary to France, so long torn by civil dissensions; and Henry concluded at Vervins a treaty with the Spanish king.

During the remaining years of his reign, Henry, aided by his wise and virtuous friend and minister Sully, was indefatigable in restoring France to order, tranquillity, and power. He was still, however, harassed by the intrigues of the Spanish cabinet; and at length he took the occasion of the disputed succession of the duchies of Cleves and Juliers to undertake his long-meditated plan of humbling the house of Austria; but in the midst of his preparations he perished by the dagger
1610. of the assassin Ravaillac. Henry was justly styled the Great: he possessed all kingly virtues; the blemish of his character was his passion for women. After the death of Margaret of Valois, he married Mary of Medici, daughter of Francis duke of Tuscany.

The Netherlands.

The Netherlands had grown wealthy by trade. A freedom of municipal government, and consequently of opinion, prevailed in their cities, and the reformed doc-

trines easily obtained a footing there. Charles V. had sought in vain to suppress them. Philip disliked the people, and he detested the new opinions; he insulted and offended the counts of Egmont and Horn, and the prince of Orange. They became the leaders of the oppressed people. Philip determined to crush the nation; and the relentless duke of Alva was sent with a large army as governor to the Netherlands. Egmont and Horn, who had been the chief agents in composing the ferment of the Flemings, were notwithstanding brought to the block by Alva. Nothing was to be heard but cries of despair, to be seen but torture and death.

William of Nassau, prince of Orange, led an army out of Germany, and offered battle in vain to Alva. The Spaniards held all the fortified towns, and the prince was forced to disband his troops. Alva's tyranny knew no bounds; the people dared not to oppose. The queen of England, though favourable to the Flemings, was, at the desire of the king of Spain, obliged to exclude their privateers from her ports. The Gueux (*Beggars*), as their crews were called, seized on the port of the Brille in Holland. Alva sent a force against them; the people of the neighbourhood rose and defeated it, and put themselves under the prince of Orange, by whose exertions the province of Holland, and shortly after that of Zealand, cast off the Spanish yoke. The prince took Mechlin, Oudenard, and Dendermond; the gallant defence of Haarlem convinced Alva of the inutility of strong measures. He tried in vain to induce the people of Holland to submit to the clemency of Philip; but they, who knew what the tender mercies of Alva and his master were, set them at defiance. The duke laid siege to Alcmaar; he was repulsed: he fitted out a large fleet; it was defeated by the Zealanders: he prayed to be recalled, and left the Low Countries, boasting that in five years he had delivered 18,000 persons to the executioner.

A. D. 1572.

1568.

Alva was succeeded by Requesens, commander of Castile, a man of mild disposition; but the war still

A. D. raged with alternate success. Leyden was invested by
1574. the Spaniards; the citizens endured every extreme of famine and distress; the Dutch opened the dikes; a violent wind drove the waters against the Spanish works; and the commander Valdez was, after losing the flower of his army, forced to raise the siege. Conferences
1575. were now held, but to no purpose, at Breda, under the mediation of the emperor. The war was renewed: the Spaniards proved too powerful for the two provinces; they had entered Zealand, and were meditating the conquest of Holland, when, in their despair, the Dutch offered the sovereignty of their country to the queen of England. That prudent princess declined it, but mediated for them in vain with Philip. The war raged as fiercely as ever.

1576. Meanwhile Requesens died; and the Spanish garrison committed such atrocities at Antwerp, that all the provinces, except Luxemburg, entered into the Pacification of Ghent, whose object was the expulsion of foreign troops, and the restoration of the ancient liberties of the states. Don John of Austria, the succeeding governor, seeing the inutility of resistance, agreed to confirm the pacification, and peace was at length restored.

The ambition of Don John violated the peace, and war broke out anew. As he had meditated marrying the queen of Scots, and claiming the crown of England,
1578. Elizabeth no longer hesitated to assist the malcontents with men and money. The count palatine of the Rhine also collected an army to aid them. But discord arose among the Netherlanders. Jealous of the prince of Orange, the duke d'Arschot and other catholic nobles privately invited Mathias, brother to the emperor Rodolf II., to take the government. Mathias suddenly appeared; the prince of Orange prudently joined him; Don John was deposed, and Mathias made the prince his lieutenant, to the great mortification of d'Arschot.

Don John, being joined by the prince of Parma and 18,000 veterans, attacked and defeated the army of the

states at Gembloux. Dissension continued between the two parties. Mathias was despised; the prince of Orange suspected by both on account of his moderation. By the influence of the catholic party, the duke of Anjou was declared *Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands*. Don John dying shortly afterwards, the command of the Spanish forces passed to the prince of Parma, one of the first generals and statesmen of the age.

The prince of Orange saw the necessity of a closer union among the protestant states. Deputies met at Utrecht (Jan. 15.), from Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overyssel, and Guelderland, and signed the famous union of the Seven United Provinces. The king of Spain sought in vain to detach the prince of Orange from the union; he was resolved to stand or fall with his country. The prince of Parma made a treaty with the people of the southern states; the catholics in general favoured him, and he took several towns: the states, however, continued resolute; they again offered the sovereignty to Elizabeth, and on her refusing it, conferred it on the duke of Anjou. A. D. 1579. 1580.

The duke of Anjou forced the Spaniards to raise the siege of Cambray; but when he went to England on the bootless project of marrying Elizabeth, the prince of Parma gained great advantages in the Netherlands. When he returned, he made a rash and violent attempt on the liberties of the states, and was obliged to retire to France, where he shortly afterwards died. Mathias had retired to Germany, and the conflict was now between the two great princes of Orange and Parma.

Philip had set a reward on the head of the prince of Orange, and the dagger of an assassin, Balthazar Gerard, deprived the states of their able and patriotic leader. 1585. Their gratitude made them appoint his son Maurice, a youth of eighteen years, their *Stadthouder*, and captain-general by sea and land; their rage stimulated them to renewed exertion. The prince of Parma had reduced Ghent and Brussels; he now invested Antwerp; the

citizens opened their sluices and broke down their dikes; the prince cut a canal to carry off the waters; he erected a fortified bridge across the Scheld, to prevent the town being relieved by sea. The Hollanders, expecting that the fall of Antwerp would benefit their town of Amsterdam, obstructed every measure for its relief. The city was forced to surrender. It declined, and Amsterdam flourished.

The loss of Antwerp was a great blow to the states. Elizabeth saw now the necessity of aiding them effectually. The earl of Leicester was sent to Holland with 5000 foot and 1000 horse. The states made him their governor; but his insolence and incapacity obliged his mistress to recall him. Prince Maurice was made governor, and lord Willoughby was appointed to command the English forces. The prince of Parma was now obliged, more than once, to lead his army into France in aid of the League, and he was occupied in
A. D preparing for the invasion of England; so that the war
1592. was not prosecuted with very great vigour. His death, as he was once more preparing to enter France, delivered Maurice from a powerful opponent.

He was succeeded in the chief command by count Mansfeld, an able and experienced officer. The scale of the states now preponderated; prince Maurice took
1594. Breda before the eyes of the Spanish commander, and then Gertruydenburg and Groningen. At Turnhout,
1597. prince Maurice and sir Francis Vere gained a complete victory over the Spaniards. The states refused now to be included in the peace of Vervins. Philip II.
1598. died. He had seen how fruitless was the contest, and, as a decent mode of ending it, he had transferred to his daughter Isabella, contracted to the archduke Albert, the sovereignty of the Low Countries. Albert wrote letters to the United Provinces, entreating them to submit to their natural princes, who would govern them with justice and lenity. They returned no answer. An edict was issued precluding them from all intercourse with the Spanish Netherlands, Spain, and Portugal.

Philip II. had wisely never meddled with their trade. The Dutch sent a fleet to cruise against the Spaniards, and they turned their views towards the East Indies, and soon possessed the far greater part of the lucrative trade which the Portuguese had enjoyed.

The war in the Low Countries was continued with spirit. Each side was strongly reinforced; towns were taken on both sides: the two armies came to a general engagement at Nieuport near Ostend, and after a well- A. D.
sustained contest the Spanish veterans gave way. But 1600.
the troops of prince Maurice were so exhausted by fatigue, that he was unable to undertake any thing
before Albert had collected a superior army. Overtures 1601.
of peace were made to and rejected by the states.
Maurice took Rhinburg; Albert laid siege to Ostend,
which was vigorously defended by sir Francis Vere,
and he was forced to turn the siege into a blockade. 1602.
The states changed the garrison, putting in fresh troops;
the besiegers were reinforced by 8000 Italians, under
the marquis Spinola, who took the command, and by
his skill reduced the town to ruins. An honourable
capitulation was granted by him to the garrison. 1604.

This siege cost the archduke 70,000 men, and Maurice had meantime made acquisitions equal to Ostend. It was resolved to prosecute the war with vigour; Spinola was made commander in chief: he had during two years considerable success; but his troops mutinied for want of pay, and he gave it as his opinion that the subjugation of the United Provinces was impracticable. The pride of Spain was reduced to treat with the Dutch as an independent nation. A suspension of arms was 1607.
agreed to, and finally, though opposed by the Orange party, a truce for ten years was made at the Hague,
under the mediation of France and England. 1609.

Thus, after a severe contest of thirty-seven years, independence was assured to the United Provinces. During the conflict they had increased in wealth, had made extensive acquisitions in the East, and established a navy equal to any at the time.

England.

A. D. 559. The throne of England was at this eventful period filled by Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII., and sister of the two preceding sovereigns; a princess whose many great qualities have, in despite of some defects and weaknesses, and one crime (as we must call it), obtained her the applause of succeeding ages. On her succession, the protestant religion was lastingly established in England. Philip of Spain, despairing of obtaining her hand, was now become her implacable foe; and as the catholics denied the legality of her mother's marriage, they consequently denied her right to the throne, and they asserted the priority of the claims of Mary queen of Scots, descended from the daughter of Henry VII. This last ill-fated princess by this claim, and by her imprudence and her superior beauty, excited the envy and jealousy of Elizabeth; her catholic bigotry alarmed the fears of the protestants; her crimes alienated from her many who pitied her misfortunes. Yet, guilty as was Mary and as was Elizabeth, their times, their situations, and other circumstances, will offer many an excuse for each; and pity will often take the place of blame in the mind of the attentive examiner of their history, especially of that of the unfortunate queen of Scots, who, brought up amid the milder manners of the court of France, was ill fitted to contend with the turbulence and barbarism of her native realm; and who, imprisoned by her own subjects, and thence flying into England to seek the protection of a sister-queen and relative, found another prison, and, after a confinement of nineteen years, an 1587. unjust and ignominious death.

Philip had long been making preparations for the invasion of England: 50,000 men were assembled under the prince of Parma in the Low Countries for that purpose; ships were built in all the ports of his dominions. 1588. The Invincible Fleet, as it was proudly called, sailed at length from the port of Lisbon; but the courage and skill of the English mariners defeated it; the winds or

heaven dispersed and shattered it; and but a small portion revisited Spain. "*I sent my fleet to combat the English, not the elements. God be praised, the calamity is not greater,*" expressed the real or affected resignation of Philip: "*Afflavit Deus, et dissipantur inimici,*" the real or affected piety of Elizabeth, who had evinced, in the season of danger, a spirit worthy of the greatest of her predecessors.

With Elizabeth ended the house of Tudor, a race of born despots. Henry VII. was subtle and oppressive; Henry VIII. barbarous and capricious; Edward VI. died before he could show his disposition; Mary was an odious and cruel fanatic; Elizabeth was insincere and arbitrary, but prudent and judicious. She loved her subjects; but on the same principle as her contemporary Shah Abbas loved his, — because they were *hers*, and she knew that their prosperity was her power; but woe to any of them who dared oppose her will or her caprice! Yet, like every truly great mind, she could yield to circumstances, and bend before the storm which it were folly to resist.

During the reign of Elizabeth, the rebellions of Desmond and O'Neil in Ireland were crushed; a colony, called Virginia, was planted in the New World; sir Francis Drake sailed round the globe; an intercourse was opened with the great empire of Russia. Trade and commerce were encouraged by this great princess; literature was held in honour, and flourished.

Portugal.

John III. was succeeded by his grandson Sebastian, a child of but three years of age. The late king committed by will the regency to his widow, the sister of the emperor Charles V.; but in a few years she resigned it to her brother-in-law, the cardinal Henry. Both regents governed with prudence and moderation. The young Sebastian early showed a passion for war; and as soon as he attained his majority (at the age of fourteen) he began to make preparations for an African expedition. A.D. 1557

In the beginning of the present century two brothers, sons of the chief of a small village in the African province of Dara, pretending a descent from the Prophet, and therefore styling themselves Sheriffs, endeavoured to rekindle the zeal of the followers of Islam. Their preaching was effective; they collected troops; and though at first defeated by the Portuguese officers, they gradually advanced in strength. They built a town in a fine valley in the kingdom of Fez; and they finally murdered the king of Morocco and seized his throne, which the elder, sheriff Hamed, occupied. In the time of Sebastian civil discord broke out in the royal house of Morocco; and Muley Hamet, being expelled by Muley Moluc, having failed to induce Philip of Spain to arm in his cause, applied to Sebastian, who gave a cheerful consent, and in spite of the remonstrances of the king of Spain and of the clergy and nobles of his own kingdom, he passed over to Africa at the head of a force of but 15,000 men. Muley Moluc, who was in the last stage of a lingering disease, engaged him with an army of 48,000 men, near Alcazar-quivir. The sheriff expired in the midst of the conflict; but a complete victory crowned the African arms. Sebastian disappeared, most probably slain; but his subjects long continued to believe him living, and to look for his return.

A. D. 1578.

Cardinal Henry mounted the throne of Portugal. On his death the succession was disputed. The only male issue left by the four sons of Don Manuel was Antonio, the prior of Crato, and natural son of Luis duke of Beja. Don Edward had left two daughters, one married to the great prince of Parma; but as she was thus become a foreigner, she was excluded by the Constitutions of Lamego: the other was married to the duke of Braganza, and he had by law a right to the crown. Philip II. was son to a daughter of Don Manuel; but as she had become a foreigner by her marriage, she could transmit no claim. Philip, however, set up a claim. As he was by far the most powerful of the candidates, he very easily made it good: the prior of Crato alone resisted. The

state of the continent prevented any princes supporting the just claims of the duke of Braganza; and he himself was a quiet, easy man, satisfied with obtaining honours and dignities. Philip was crowned at Lisbon. A. D. 1580.

Thus, 869 years after the fall of the Gothic kingdom, the whole peninsula was reunited under one head; happy if that head had not been Philip II.!

Germany.

Charles V. was succeeded in the imperial dignity by his brother Ferdinand, king of the Romans. This excellent prince directed all his efforts to the establishment of civil and religious concord in the empire. By 1557. the diet of Ratisbon, a reconciliation was made between the houses of Hesse and Nassau. The council of Trent was reassembled; but the protestant princes met and 1561. came to the determination of adhering to the Confession of Augsburg whatever the council might decree. All the well-meant efforts of the emperor were in vain; the council, bent only on the now hopeless project of exalting the power of the church, would listen to none of his prudent suggestions. After passing a set of decrees, which effectually closed the doors against unity, this last of general councils was dissolved. 1563.

Maximilian II. had been chosen king of the Romans 1564. in the lifetime of his father. Immediately on his accession he was engaged in war with Suleiman I., who even meditated the conquest of the German empire. Selim II. concluded a truce with the emperor. During the remainder of the reign of this mild and excellent prince, Germany enjoyed peace and tranquillity. His son and successor, Rodolf II., inherited his pacific 1576. temper.

Poland.

At this period the Polish constitution underwent a 1572. great alteration. On the death of the estimable Sigismund Augustus, the last male of the Jagellons, the diet, consisting of 182 deputies, met, and determined that no

king should have the power of nominating his successor. The election of a king was thus regulated: — On the plain of Vola, near Warsaw, the senate and the people assembled. The former was composed of two archbishops, fifteen bishops, thirty-seven voivodes (*dukes*), eighty-two castellans (*senators and lieutenants of the voivodes*), and ten ministers of state. The senate met in a wooden house; the deputies and the other nobles around it, within a wall and ditch. The king assembled and presided over this diet, wherein all matters relating to internal and external policy were transacted. The powers of the monarch were extremely limited; but he appointed to ecclesiastical dignities, conferred nobility, commanded the army, and his assent was necessary to give validity to the acts of the diet.

The protestant religion having made great progress in Poland, the greater part of the senate were of that persuasion; the most perfect toleration prevailed; all *dissidents*, as the non-catholics were styled, were eligible to all offices. The Arians and Socinians were numerous in Poland; the latter, when persecuted every where else, found an asylum there. Racau was their chief establishment.

A. D.
1573. On the death of Sigismund, a protestant named Szafraniec was proposed as his successor; but the choice fell upon Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. Henry succeeding to his brother in France, unceremoniously quitted Poland, and the Poles chose

1575. Stephen Bathori, prince of Transylvania, a wise and brave monarch. They insisted on his marrying Anna Jagellon, daughter of Sigismund, to prevent any prince whom she might espouse claiming the crown. Stephen was by her induced to embrace the catholic religion.

1587. His successor was Sigismund Vasa, crown-prince of Sweden, descended on the mother's side from the Jagellons.

Italy.

The haughty Caraffa (Paul IV.) was followed in the papal chair by the pious and zealous Pius IV. and V., and the good and well-intentioned Gregory XIII. The able, the vigorous, the resolute Montalto (Sixtus V.) next occupied the seat of St. Peter. This penetrating statesman saw clearly through the selfish policy of Philip II., whom he secretly wished no success; and he, in his heart, admired the king of France and queen of England, against whom he discharged his spiritual thunder. He established a rigorous police in the papal territories, and curbed the excesses of the lawless nobles. His strong measures against the great were followed up by his successor Aldobrandini (Clement VIII.).

In Florence, Cosimo, the first grand duke, fortunate in other respects, was unhappy in his family. His daughter Lucretia was poisoned by her husband, a duke of Ferrara; her sister Isabella was strangled by a prince of the Orsini, to whom she was married. The cardinal John of Medici was murdered by his brother Garcia, on account of a dispute at the chase, and Cosimo put his son Garcia to death with his own hand. Their mother died of grief. His eldest daughter was, on account of improper love, poisoned by order of the grand duke.

Francis, the second grand duke, also perished by poison. A Florentine, named Buonaventuri, settled at Venice, had run away with Bianca, the daughter of the senator Capello. They came to Florence, where they lived in poverty. The grand duke saw Bianca, admired, and got acquainted with her. Buonaventuri acquired wealth and honours. He loved a widow, and he employed his power to oppress her brothers; the grand duke reproving him, he replied with insolence and threats; he was abandoned to the vengeance of those whom he had injured, and he was murdered. Just at this time the grand duchess, daughter of the emperor Ferdinand, died. Francis married his beloved Bianca. Soon after, A. D. 1576.

she took a hatred to her brother-in-law, the cardinal Ferdinand, and attempted to poison him at dinner. The cardinal, put perhaps on his guard, declined the proffered viands; — the grand duke, not aware of the truth, ate of
A. D. the dish to remove his suspicions: — Bianca saw she
1587. was lost: — she also tasted of the dish, and died with her husband.

The cardinal now became grand duke. He was a prince of great political prudence and sagacity, and his maxims were adopted by some leading courts. But he gave the reins without restraint to every sensual indulgence, and his example was followed by his subjects. Manufactures languished, monopoly and companies checked trade; but Florence was one of the handsomest, richest, and politest cities in Europe.

1559. The dukes of Savoy were proceeding with their characteristic activity. Emanuel Philibert, secured in his
1564. dominions by the treaty of Château Cambresis, turned all his thoughts to depressing the nobles and increasing the ducal authority. He established a militia, built the citadel of Turin, and fortified Montmelian and Vercelle; he created the manufacture of silk and the culture of olives; he greatly increased the revenues by his wise measures, and was enabled to let the assembly of the
1584. states go out of use. His son Charles Emanuel had all the talents of a great prince, and could accommodate himself to all circumstances. His fault was neglect of his word when it interfered with his interest. By exchange he obtained Saluzzo, and prepared the way for
1590. the acquisition of a part of Montferrat by his son. His reign was long and successful.

Turkey.

1566. Selim II., on succeeding his father Suleiman, concluded a truce for twelve years with the emperor Maximilian. He turned his arms, without success, against Persia, and then revived an old claim of the Egyptian sultans on Cyprus. After a heroic resistance, the island was con-
1571. quered by the Turks, with the loss of 100,000 lives.

A league had been formed against Selim by the pope, the king of Spain, and the Venetians. Their fleet was too late to relieve Cyprus; but they encountered in the gulf of Lepanto the Turkish fleet, which ravaged the coasts of Italy and Dalmatia, and gained over it a most signal victory. Don John of Austria commanded the Christians; but dissension prevented any solid advantage being derived from it. Next year the Turks appeared with a still greater fleet, and the Venetians made a separate peace, by which they renounced all claim to Cyprus. Don John had meantime conquered Tunis and Biserta; but they were again recovered by the Turks.

During the reigns of the three following sultans, who were sunk in pleasure, the Turks made no acquisitions of consequence. Under Mohammed III., the grand vizier managed to draw to himself all power, by abolishing the places of the six viziers who sat in the divan.

CHAP. IV.

TIMES OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Germany.

THE archduke Mathias succeeded Rodolf in the empire. This prince had been hitherto favourable to the protestants, but he now resolved to curb them. He had his cousin Ferdinand duke of Styria chosen his successor in Bohemia and Hungary, and he made a family compact with the court of Spain. The protestants were alarmed; the Bohemians and Hungarians had recourse to arms: the latter were easily quelled; but the former were joined by the protestants of Silesia, Moravia, and Upper Austria, and supported by an army of other German protestants under count Mansfeld. Thus began the Thirty Years' War. A. D. 1612.

Mathias died, and Ferdinand was raised to the impe- 1619.

rial throne. The Bohemians deposed him, and offered their crown to Frederic V., elector palatine, who, contrary to the advice of his father-in-law, James I. of England, accepted the fatal gift. He was supported by all the protestant princes of the empire except the elector of Saxony, and by Bethlem Gabor, voivode of Transylvania, by a body of 8000 Dutch troops, and by 2400 English volunteers. Ferdinand was aided by the king of Spain, by the archduke Albert, governor of the Netherlands, and the catholic princes of the empire. Spinola led 24,000 men from the Low Countries, and ravaged the palatinate; Frederic was defeated at Prague
A. D. 1620. by the duke of Bavaria and general Baquoy. He and his adherents were put to the ban of the empire; Bethlem Gabor was defeated in Hungary; count Tilly completed the conquest of the palatinate; Frederic was degraded, and his dignity of elector conferred on the duke of Bavaria.

1625. A league was formed, at the head of which was Christian IV. of Denmark, for the restoration of the palatine. But the troops of the league were unable to stand before the imperialists led by Tilly and Wallenstein, and Christian was forced to sue for peace. Ferdinand now thought the time was come for reducing the princes and prelates of the empire to the condition of those of other countries. He resolved to begin with the
1629. protestants; and he passed an edict ordering them to restore all the church lands, &c. that they had enjoyed since the peace of Passau. The protestants remonstrated; a diet was held at Ratisbon; the majority of the catholic princes were for quieting them; the spiritual electors seconded the views of the emperor. The protestants, to escape the meditated robbery, formed a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden.

Gustavus was a prince of the highest military and civil talents: he was animated by a rational zeal for the protestant religion, and he saw through the emperor's project of extending his dominion over the Baltic. Various other reasons combined to induce him to engage

in war. The cardinal Richelieu, now minister in France, desirous to check the power of the house of Austria, engaged to give him an annual subsidy of 1,200,000 livres. Charles I. of England allowed 6000 men to be raised in the name of the marquis of Hamilton, to aid the king of Sweden, and numerous English and Scottish volunteers crowded to his standard.

Gustavus entered Pomerania. The protestant princes were at first fearful of joining him; but his well-timed decision towards the elector of Brandenburg ended their hesitation. Being joined by the Saxons, he advanced towards Leipzig, where Tilly lay, who advanced into the plain of Breitenfeld to meet him. The numbers on each side were about 30,000; but Tilly's troops were all veterans. The Saxons, being raw troops, fled at the first onset: the skill of Gustavus and the valour of the Swedes gained a complete victory. A. D. 1631.

The king of Sweden quickly made himself master of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine. The elector of Saxony entered Bohemia, and took Prague. Tilly, in disputing the passage of the Lech with the Swedes, was killed. 1632. Gustavus took Augsburg, marched into Bavaria, and entered Munich. Wallenstein had meantime recovered Prague. The king of Sweden offered him battle near Nürnburg; Wallenstein declined it: a furious attack was for ten hours made on his entrenchments, and the Swedes were repulsed with great loss. Soon after, hearing that Wallenstein had transferred his camp to Lützen, Gustavus, though it was the depth of winter, and the imperial forces greatly exceeded his in number, resolved to seek and engage him. The battle which ensued is one of the hardest fought recorded in history. It lasted from daybreak till night: the king of Sweden fell in the midst of the conflict. Night alone prevented the victory of the Swedes being complete.

The death of Gustavus cast a gloom over the protestants; they fell into factions: the catholics were elated. But the Swedish regency (as Gustavus had left only one child, Christina, of seven years) committed the manage-

ment of the war to the chancellor Oxenstiern, a man of great ability, who, with the duke of Saxe-Weimar and generals Banier and Horn, prosecuted it with vigour. An event now occurred seemingly calculated to advance the protestant cause. The emperor, whether justly or not is doubtful, suspecting the fidelity of Wallenstein, and fearing to deprive him of his command, had him secretly assassinated. But the loss of his genius was supplied by a large accession of Spanish and other troops, and by the junction of the dukes of Lorrain
A. D. and Bavaria. The imperial troops were commanded
1634. by the king of Hungary; the duke of Saxe-Weimar and general Horn came up with them near Nordlingen, and a bloody battle ended in the total defeat of the Swedes.

The German princes now deserted the Swedes, and
1635. made at Prague a treaty with the emperor, in which he receded from his former demands of the restitution of church property. The weight of the war now fell on the Swedes and French.

France entered into an alliance with Holland, and war was declared against Spain. Richelieu raised five armies, one of which was sent into Germany, and placed under the duke of Saxe-Weimar. None of these armies was very successful. The imperial general Galas was opposed to the duke of Weimar, and they fought, with alternate advantage. In Upper Germany, the Swedes,
1636. under Banier, gave the imperialists, under the elector of Saxony, a complete defeat at Wislock.

1637. The emperor Ferdinand II. died, and was succeeded by his son, of the same name. The same line of policy was pursued, and the war continued. The duke of
1638. Weimar laid siege to Rainfeld; an imperial army advanced to its relief, and was totally defeated by the duke: the town surrendered, as did soon after Brisac, and other places.

While Weimar triumphed on the Rhine, Banier was equally successful in Pomerania; he reduced several towns, and cut to pieces some of the imperial troops.

A. D.

In the beginning of the next campaign, the duke and 1639.
Banier took measures for penetrating into the heart of the Austrian dominions. Banier crossed the Elbe, beat every thing that opposed him, entered Saxony, and totally defeated the Saxon army at Chemnitz. He invaded Bohemia, laid the country under contribution, fell on the imperialists under general Hofskirk at Brandeiz, and pursued them to the walls of Prague. He then repassed the Elbe, defeated the imperialists at Glatz, and drove the Saxons three times from their camp at Tirn.

But the hopes of the Swedes were almost blighted by the loss of the duke of Saxe-Weimar, who died at this time, in his 36th year, by poison, as was strongly suspected. After a good deal of contest for his army, it was finally taken into the pay of the king of France, who thus became master of a great part of Alsatia and Brisgau. Under the command of the duke of Longueville it joined Banier at Erfurt; but the Swede found his genius cramped by their presence, and was no longer able to execute his bold and sudden projects.

It was agreed to attack Piccolomini, the imperial general, in his camp at Saltzburg. This being found impracticable, the allies separated, and Banier attempted to penetrate into Franconia. Failing in this, he marched through Hesse into Lunenburg. Piccolomini attempted to enter this duchy, but was unable to penetrate it: and as he marched for Franconia, he was attacked and nearly defeated by the Weimarian army.

The emperor having convoked a diet at Ratisbon, 1641.
Banier formed a plan of surprising the city and dispersing the diet. Having joined the French army under Guebriant, they crossed the Danube on the ice, took 1500 of the imperial horse, and very nearly surprised the emperor himself. The approach of a thaw disconcerted their plans; but they threw five hundred shot into the town, an insult that enraged Ferdinand beyond measure. Attempts at a pacification were made at Hamburgh by the French and Swedish plenipotentiaries and one of the Aulic counsellors; but the emperor refused to ratify the convention.

After the attempt on Ratisbon, the French and Swedes separated; Banier marched through Bohemia, followed by Piccolomini and Gleen. He conducted his retreat in a most masterly manner to Zickau, where he was joined by Guebriant, and they prepared to make head against the imperialists; but Banier took a fever in consequence of the fatigues he had undergone, and died at Halberstadt, in the 41st year of his age. Torstenson, another of the pupils of Gustavus, was appointed to succeed him, and he left Sweden with a large sum of money and a considerable reinforcement; but, before his arrival, the allies under Guebriant had defeated Piccolomini at Wolfenbüttel. When Torstenson arrived the armies separated.

A. D.
1642. The next spring, Guebriant totally defeated general Lamboy, and made himself master of the electorate of Cologne. Piccolomini marched against Torstenson, who had defeated the duke of Saxe-Lauenburg, and invested Leipzig. The archduke Leopold and Piccolomini advanced to the relief of it; and Breitenfeld was again witness to the triumph of Swedish valour.

The news of this defeat filled the imperial court with consternation. Leipzig surrendered; but Torstenson failed in his attempt on Friedburg. Guebriant was also successful on his side.

1643. Conferences for a peace were now opened; but the death of Louis XIII. and of Richelieu checked them: cardinal Mazarin, however, trod in the footsteps of his predecessor. The arms of France were successful. While the negotiations were pending, Torstenson marched into Holstein, to punish the hostility of the king of Denmark. Christian called on the emperor, who sent Galas thither; but Galas feared to engage the Swedes. France then mediated a peace between Denmark and Sweden. The French, under Turenne, were successful against the Bavarians; the voivode of Transylvania invaded Hungary; and the imperial army there under Götz was utterly ruined. A similar fate befell that under
1645. Galas. Torstenson invaded Bohemia; a large army

under Galas, Hasfeld, and others, was collected near Thabor. The Swedish general decoyed them from their advantageous position, and completely defeated them. Every place submitted; the imperial family fled from Vienna: Brinn, however, held out against the Swedes.

The Bavarians under Merci defeated Turenne at Mariendal; Turenne was reinforced by 8000 men, under the duke d'Enghien, and gave battle to the Bavarians on the plain of Nordlingen, which had been so fatal to the Swedes. After a dreadful conflict, victory declared for the French, with the loss of 4000 men. The elector of Saxony, unable to check the progress of the Swedish general Königsmark, concluded a truce for six months. The latter joined Torstenson, who had, in spite of the archduke, carried his depredations to the gates of Vienna. They agreed to lay siege to Prague; but the archduke secured that city against them; and Torstenson, who was dreadfully afflicted with the gout, returning to Sweden, was succeeded by Vrangel, who ably sustained the glory of the Swedish arms. The French and Swedes were every where successful; the elector of Bavaria and other princes were forced to make separate peaces with them; the emperor alone was opposed to them; and though A. D. the elector of Bavaria had again joined him, the victory 1648. of Zummerhausen, gained by Turenne and Vrangel, and the invasion of Bavaria and Bohemia, compelled him to think at last seriously of peace.

Negotiations had long been going on at Osnaburg and Münster. At last the PEACE OF WESTPHALIA was signed at the latter place on the 24th Oct. 1648. By this celebrated treaty France obtained Alsatia, Brisac, Metz, Verdun, and other territories; Sweden got Upper Pomerania, Stetin, the Isle of Rügen, Bremen, &c. with three votes at the diet; compensation was made to the elector of Brandenburg and the duke of Mecklenburg for the loss of these territories; the Upper Palatinate and the electoral rank remained with the duke of Bavaria; Switzerland was declared independent of the empire; the pacification of Passau was fully confirmed; Lu-

therans and Catholics were placed on the same footing; the imperial chamber was to consist of twenty-six catholic and twenty-four protestant members; six protestants were admitted into the Aulic council; an equal number of each party was to be summoned to the diet; but in cases where it concerned either religion alone, only deputies of that religion should be called.

France.

A. D. 1610. Louis XIII. being a minor, his mother, Mary of Medici, a weak, bigoted woman, was declared regent. She was governed entirely by an Italian, named Concini, and his wife. Sully retired; new maxims were adopted; a double marriage and union with Spain was 1613. projected; and the ruin of the protestants meditated. The nobility, headed by the prince of Condé, revolted 1615. they were appeased by gifts; they revolted again, and were again appeased in the same way.

Luines, the favourite of Louis, took advantage of his influence over him to induce the young prince to seize the reins of government. Louis ordered Concini to be 1617. arrested; the captain of the guards shot him, under pretext of resistance; his wife, the high-spirited Galligai, was condemned to death for sorcery and magic; the regent was exiled to Blois. Luines, from a page, was raised to the highest rank and offices in the state. A conspiracy, headed by the duke of Epernon, released the queen-mother. Guided by the great Richelieu, she caballed against the court, which was obliged to enter into treaties advantageous to her and her party. She procured Richelieu a cardinal's hat, and a seat in the council.

1620. Louis, having united Bearn to the crown, attempted, though the people were protestants, to re-establish there the catholic religion. The Huguenots were alarmed; they assembled at Rochelle, and determined to throw off their allegiance, and to form a republic. Luines, now constable, took arms. Having seduced, by bribes and 1621. promises, the duke of Bouillon, and other of their leaders,

he laid siege to Montauban with 25,000 men. The place was gallantly defended by the marquis la Force, and Luines was forced to retire with disgrace. He died shortly afterwards, and was succeeded in his office of constable by the brave Lesdiguieres, who had renounced Calvinism. The protestants were led by the duke of Rohan and his brother Soubise. The latter was defeated by the king in person, who laid siege to Montpellier, which was defended as bravely as Montauban. A. D.
A peace was made, and the edict of Nantes confirmed. 1622.

The haughty Richelieu became now prime minister. There were three parties whom he resolved to humble; the nobility of France, the Huguenots, and the house of Austria. To accomplish these objects, he, in spite of the pope and the king of Spain, concluded a marriage between Charles prince of Wales and the king's sister Henrietta, as also an alliance between the two crowns and the United Provinces. A war with Spain was the consequence, in which a French army, united with the Venetians and the duke of Savoy, took the Valteline, and restored it to the Grisons; but Spinola reduced 1625.
Breda, and the English failed in an attempt on Cadiz.

The Huguenots rebelled, and were now encouraged by England. The duke of Buckingham appeared before Rochelle with 7000 men; but he had laid his measures so ill, that the citizens refused to admit him, and after an ill-conducted attempt on the isle of Rhé, he returned home with disgrace. Richelieu laid siege to Rochelle; and having run a mole across the harbour, compelled it to surrender. The duke of Rohan defended himself with vigour in Languedoc; but as England had made peace, he was forced to come to terms. The pro- 1629.
testants were continued in the enjoyment of all that had been secured by the edict of Nantes, only they were deprived of their fortified towns.

Having humbled the protestants at home, and thereby brought the whole kingdom, nobility and all, under the control of the crown, Richelieu resolved, in furtherance of his remaining object, to aid the protestants in

Germany; and he formed the secret alliance which we have already noticed.* After the treaty of Prague, he openly joined the Swedes. Meantime he ruled France with a rod of iron: the queen-mother was banished, her son Gaston duke of Orleans obliged to beg his life, and the marshals Montmorency and Merillas publicly executed. In defiance of all his enemies, Richelieu retained his power till his death, in 1642, at the moment when the arms of France and Sweden had completely humbled the pride of the house of Austria. The minister died
A. D. on the 4th of December: his royal master followed him
1643. on the 14th of the ensuing May. Louis had been married to Anne of Austria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain.

Spain.

The chief domestic incident that distinguished the reign of Philip III. was the expulsion of the Moriscoes. Impelled by the inquisition, and by the advice of his feeble and bigoted minister, the duke of Lerma, Philip issued
1611. an edict, commanding all his Mohammedan subjects to quit the kingdom within thirty days. In despair the Moors took arms: they were subdued, and a million of industrious subjects driven out of Spain, whose fate it is, to be to Europe a standing example of the evils of civil and religious despotism. During this reign, attempts were made to extend the Spanish power in Italy.

1621. Philip IV. and his minister Olivarez were both men of even less energy than their predecessors; and Spain declined more and more every day. While agriculture and every branch of industry suffered from excessive impost, scandalous luxury reigned in the court and capital. The Catalans rebelled; the Portuguese threw off the yoke of Spain; the English took Jamaica and Dunkirk; the French cut the Spanish infantry to pieces on the plains of Rocroi, and forced Philip to resign Roussillon, Conflans, and a part of Cerdaña. Continual

* See p. 361.

reverses attended the Spanish arms in Italy and in the Low Countries, and to complete the national humiliation, the independence of the Dutch was fully acknowledged. A. D. 1643.

Portugal.

The Portuguese had long been irritated by the despotism they were subject to. On the revolt of the Catalans, orders came from Madrid for the Portuguese nobles to take arms for their reduction. A plot long formed now broke out. The duchess of Mantua, styled the vice-queen, was driven away, and the grandson of the duke of Braganza, who had been deprived of his right by Philip II., was proclaimed king, under the title of John IV. All Portugal acknowledged him; ships were sent to the foreign settlements, and all expelled their Spanish governors. Brazil was recovered from the Dutch, and Portugal became once more independent. 1640

Italy.

The dominions of Spain in northern Italy were divided from those of the emperor by the Valteline and Venice. Bedomar, the Spanish ambassador to the latter, formed, in conjunction with the governor of Milan and the viceroy of Naples, a nefarious project for murdering the senate, and getting possession of Venice; but the senate, discovering in time the atrocious plot, executed the majority of the conspirators. Spain was more fortunate and less guilty in the Valteline, the catholic inhabitants of which rose on and massacred their protestant countrymen, and placed themselves under her protection. 1618. 1620.

The emperor and king of Spain each attempted to get the duchy of Mantua, after the death of the duke without heirs; but Richelieu entered Italy with an army, and obliged the emperor to grant the investiture to Charles Gonzaga duke of Nevers. 1630.

England — The Civil War.

A. D. 1603. An eventful period now commences in England. A new dynasty fills the throne, and the grand struggle begins between liberty and absolute power. James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary, and descended from the eldest daughter of Henry VII., was, on the death of Elizabeth, placed by the free will and choice of the English nation on her royal seat. This monarch was possessed of learning and abilities rather above the common rate; but he was pedantic, mean, and pusillanimous, shamefully subservient to unworthy favourites, and in his inglorious love of peace careless of the national honour. In the reign of this feeble prince, the English nation first learned to listen to the doctrines of the divine and indefeasible rights of kings; then, too, the church began to depart from the principles of the reformers, and some of her divines to approximate in their doctrines to those of the church of Rome, so generally odious to the nation. Every thing, in short, was done, as it were, to prepare the materials of the coming conflagration.

In the reign of James, the nation took greatly to trade and maritime enterprise, and increased rapidly in wealth, intelligence, and love of freedom. Public events were few. The most remarkable was the Gunpowder Plot, a plan formed in the beginning of the king's reign by a few desperate catholics to blow up the king and parliament, but fortunately discovered in time. The most laudable act of James's reign was the settlement and plantation of the north of Ireland.

1625. Charles I., of a harsh and arbitrary temper, endeavoured to put into practice the speculative tenets of his father. He saw not the state of the nation. English liberty had made great progress under the Plantagenets circumstances enabled the Tudors nearly to crush it; but with the growth of wealth, and the freedom of religious opinion, the spirit of the nation had recovered its vigour. Charles was suspected on account of his marriage with Henrietta, sister to the king of France, a bigoted catho-

lic, and his partiality towards the professors of that religion, of a secret design against protestantism. The Puritans, now a numerous party, were bitterly hostile to the church of England; and the persecuting violence and silly superstition of archbishop Laud augmented their rancour. Refused the necessary supplies by the parliament, without giving some security for liberty, the king had recourse to all the illegal modes of taxation employed by his predecessors. Tonnage and poundage were levied; all the oppressions of feudalism renewed; for more than ten years no parliament assembled. An attempt being made to force episcopacy upon the Scots, that nation took arms, and entered into the SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT. A dreadful rebellion broke out in Ireland, in which thousands of protestants were barbarously massacred by the catholics. The Long Parliament, which the king had assembled, advanced every day in their demands on him, and testified a spirit of determined hostility to the church. The impeachment and illegal and unjust, though well-merited, condemnation of Strafford, the king's ablest and most obnoxious minister, showed him the spirit by which they were actuated. Charles, though reluctantly, still yielded to their demands; but concession only produced further assumption. An invincible distrust of the king's sincerity, for which, indeed, there was abundant reason, haunted the minds of the parliament, and prevented all accommodation. Both parties finally determined on the appeal to the sword.

A. D. 1638. 1641. 1642.

The king was supported by a large proportion of the ancient nobility and gentry of the realm, many of whom had at first been zealous in checking the royal excesses; but now, seeing the exorbitant demands of the commons, resolved to sustain the throne. The catholics were naturally unanimous in his favour; the western counties were in general well affected to him. The chief strength of the parliament lay in the cities and great towns, and the eastern counties, and the lower orders were mostly on their side. It is idle to seek to extenuate the faults

on either side; to represent the one party as the champions of right and justice, the other as the inveterate foes of both. Each had much, indeed, to answer for: it was a struggle, the probable termination of which would be tyranny or anarchy; yet impartiality will say, that the king was left no alternative, and that the balance of guilt was rather on the side of the parliament. Certainly, neither party is entitled to our unqualified approbation. But, in truth, the Civil War was inevitable; it was the almost necessary result of the state of opinion then prevalent; it was the tempest which was to purify the political atmosphere.

The royal standard was raised at Nottingham (Aug. 22.). The first battle was fought at Edgehill. In the course of three years, numerous engagements occurred between the troops of the king and those of the parliament, now joined by the Scots. Lansdown Hill, Roundway Down, Newbury, Nantwich, Marston Moor, and other places, witnessed the successes and reverses of
A. D. either party. At length the king received a final and
1645. fatal overthrow at Naseby (June 14.), and unable any longer to make head, he fled for protection to the camp
1647. of the Scots at Newark. He was by them dishonourably surrendered to the parliament. After a confinement of some time, he was, by means of the sect of the Independents, who were all powerful in the army, and were, therefore, now the prevailing party, brought to
1649. trial, condemned, and beheaded; a sentence, even if morally just, which it undoubtedly was not, flagrantly illegal; a sentence that filled Europe with amazement; and that, even if passed with purer motives than it was, by most of his judges, was an act of useless and pernicious folly. A republic was now established.

Holland.

After the truce of 1609, the United Provinces were agitated by religious dissensions. The opinions of Calvin were maintained in all their rigour by the followers of Gomer: a milder system was advocated by Arminius. Prince Maurice sided with the former; the patriotic functionary Barneveldt, who saw through the ambitious

designs of the prince, supported the latter. The Gomerists prevailed; the Arminian preachers were banished. Barneveldt, at the age of 72, was brought to the block, A. D. under the base and iniquitous charge of "vexing the 1619. church of God." But the people saw the object of Maurice, and groans and murmurs, and the name of Barneveldt, attended him wherever he went.

The Dutch were, during this period, usually allied with France against Spain. They extended their trade in the East and West Indies. In the former they founded Batavia, and laid the foundation of their future empire in those regions.

Russia.

That most extraordinary tyrant, Ivan IV. the Terri- 1598. ble, was succeeded by his only remaining son, Fedor, with whom ended the house of Ruric. The boyars chose Boris, the brother of the empress. This prince governed well; but an impostor appeared, pretending to be Dmitri, the eldest son of Ivan. After the death of Boris, the pseudo-Dmitri gained the throne, and his reign was praiseworthy. Suspected of a fondness for Polish manners, he was murdered by his boyars.

Several false Dmitries appeared. At length, the nobles assembled to choose a sovereign. Three days they and the people fasted, and called upon God, and they then ap- 1613. pointed Michaila Romanov, son of the archbishop Philocetus, and grandson, by his mother, of the Tzar Ivan, a boy of but fifteen years. The new Tzar spent his reign in restoring Russia to its former state of power and order. His son Alexei extended the relations of the empire. He first sent an embassy to China, and made 1645. Tobolsk the staple of the Chinese trade.

Turkey and Persia.

The Turkish sultans Ahmed, Mustafa, Osman, Moorad IV., and Ibrahim were, all but the ill-fated Osman and Moorad, sunk in pleasure and sensual indulgence, and took little part in the affairs of Europe. Moorad conquered Bagdad, and restrained the power of the janizaries.

A. D. 1582. Persia, under the rule of Abbas the Great, attained to considerable power. This truly great monarch was victorious in his wars against the Ottomans and the Usbegs; and he established a degree of tranquillity throughout his dominions, to which Persia had long been a stranger. After his death the Persian power 1627. began to decline.

CHAP. V.

TIMES OF LOUIS XIV.

France, to the Peace of the Pyrenees.

Louis XIV. was a minor, his mother, Anne of Austria, 1648. regent, and cardinal Mazarin minister. De Retz (afterwards cardinal) coadjutor archbishop of Paris, a man of unprincipled ambition, endeavoured to excite the nobility and people against the minister. The parliament of Paris joined him. The queen was insulted whenever she appeared. Mazarin ordered the president and some of the most factious members of the parliament to be arrested. The populace rose, and barricadoed the streets till the prisoners were released. Such was the commencement of the celebrated Fronde.

The parliament of Paris proclaimed the cardinal a public enemy. The prince of Conti, the duke of Bouillon, and other nobles, joined them. Other parliaments followed their example. The great prince of Condé, at the request of the court, dispersed the undisciplined troops the parliament had raised. Matters were settled for a time; but Condé, Conti, and others were afterwards, by the advice of de Retz, arrested at the council-table. Their partisans took arms: the duke of Orleans, uncle to the king, set himself at their head. The cardinal was obliged to fly to Cologne. By the intrigues of him and de Retz the duke of Bouillon and his brother Turenne were detached from the malcontents, and Mazarin returned, 1651. escorted by 6000 men.

Condé threw himself on the protection of Spain, and entered Paris at the head of a body of Spanish troops. Turenne led Louis within sight of his capital, and these two great generals engaged each other in the suburb of St. Antoine. The combat was long; but the heroism of the daughter of the duke of Orleans, who ordered the guns of the Bastille to fire on the king's troops, decided it in favour of Condé.

A. D.

At length the king dismissed Mazarin, and the nation returned to its allegiance. Mazarin was, however, afterwards recalled, the nobles were punished, and the parliament humbled. 1653. 1655.

The war with Spain had still continued; it was now prosecuted with vigour. Turenne and Condé were opposed to each other. At Arras and Valenciennes the talents of the rivals were fully displayed. The balance was even between the two parties; but Mazarin formed an alliance with Cromwell, who now governed England, and the beam was turned. Dunkirk was taken from Spain, and given to England. Ypres, Gravelines, and several other towns, surrendered to the arms of France. Spain saw the necessity of peace. Mazarin and Don Louis de Haro, the Spanish minister, met in the Isle of Pheasants, in the Pyrenees, and settled the terms of a peace. Philip agreed to pardon the Catalans, and renounce all claim to Alsace; Louis to pardon Condé. The succession of Juliers was secured to the duke of Neuburg, and the infanta Maria Theresa was given in marriage to Louis. 1656. 1659.

Mazarin died within less than a year after concluding the peace of the Pyrenees; and Louis, now 21 years of age, took the reins of government into his own hands. 1661.

England, to the Restoration.

The parliament now governed England, and the strength the nation exhibited at this period is astonishing. Cromwell led an army into Ireland, and rapidly overran and conquered the whole kingdom. The Scots having proclaimed Charles II., Cromwell invaded and 1649. 1650.

A. D.
1651. reduced that kingdom also. Charles entered England with a Scottish army; but the battle of Worcester put an end to his hopes. Cromwell now dissolved the par-
1653. liament, and governed alone, under the title of Protector. Success attended all his measures of foreign policy. He beat the Dutch, and forced their ships to strike their flag to the English. He took Jamaica from the Spaniards. Mazarin acknowledged him. The Venetians and Swiss sought his friendship. The northern courts respected his power. But at home his government was rigorous in the extreme; and the despotism of Charles I. had never ventured on the tyranny and injustice exercised by this chief of the republic.

1658. On the death of Cromwell, his son Richard succeeded him in the protectorate; but he soon resigned his dignity. The eyes of the nation, wearied of change and turmoil, were turned to the ancient line of their princes. General Monk, who commanded in Scotland, marched to London; and the parliament, reassembled
1660. under his protection, restored Charles II. to the throne of his ancestors.

Wars till the Peace of Nimeguen.

The Dutch had, on the death of William II. of Orange, abolished the dignity of stadthouder. The family of Orange being connected with the royal family of England, Charles II. wished to restore his nephew, William III., to the power of his ancestors, and he also hoped to make money by a war. The people of England were jealous of the commercial wealth of Holland.
1664. War was, therefore, declared under false pretexts. Squadrons were sent out to Africa and America. De Witt, pensionary of Holland, who directed the republic, foreseeing the designs of England, had formed an alliance with France. A large fleet was collected under admiral Opdam. It engaged the English fleet under the duke of
1665. York, but was totally defeated. Louis XIV. and the king of Denmark now came forward to aid the Dutch. The following year two most desperate sea-fights took

place: the first lasted four days, and the fleets separated, leaving victory undecided. The next month the Dutch were defeated. Both parties growing weary of the war, negotiations were opened at Breda; but de Witt refused to consent to a suspension of hostilities. A. D. 1667
A Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, and burned several ships of war at Chatham; and de Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, rode triumphant in the Channel. The treaty of Breda was now concluded, in which England receded from some of her demands. She retained New York, which she had conquered; she ceded her settlement at Surinam.

Louis XIV. now commenced his career of war, the struggle between absolute monarchy and constitutional liberty. On the death of Philip IV. of Spain, who left only one son, Charles, a sickly infant, Louis, who, though 1665.
at his marriage with the infanta he had renounced all title to the succession of any part of the Spanish dominions, still secretly cherished the hope of obtaining them, had retracted the renunciation, and even laid claim, in right of his wife, to the immediate possession of the duchy of Brabant. This claim could only be decided by arms. At the head of 40,000 men Louis entered Flanders. Tournay, Douay, Lisle, and other 1667.
towns surrendered. Another campaign, it was feared, would make him master of the Low Countries. All Europe was alarmed. A triple alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden, to oblige Louis 1668.
to adhere to, and Spain to accept of, the terms offered by the former at the end of the first campaign. France and Spain were equally displeased at this treaty, but agreed to treat; and a treaty was negotiated at Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Spain allowed Louis to retain the towns he had taken, and which he had had strongly fortified by the great Vauban. By a treaty with Portugal at this time, Spain acknowledged the independence of that crown.

Louis was bent on revenge on Holland. A secret treaty was made with the king of England, whom Louis engaged 1670.
to assist in his project of establishing popery and despotism

in that country, if he aided in subduing the United Provinces; and Louis prepared to invade the States. As he could not obtain a passage through the Spanish provinces, he, contrary to the faith of treaties, seized on the duchy of Lorrain. Charles, who was now become the pensioner of France, obtained under false pretexts a large grant from his parliament; and a base and unsuccessful attempt was made on the Dutch Smyrna fleet, while the treaty subsisted with the States. At length
A. D. both monarchs, under the most frivolous pretences, de-
1672. clared war against the United Provinces. The combined fleets of France and England were more than 100 sail. A French army of 120,000 men appeared on the frontiers. The States put forth all their energies. The command of the army was intrusted to William III. of Orange, now 23 years of age. De Witt and de Ruyter attended to the navy. The latter put to sea with 90 sail of large, and 40 of small vessels, to take vengeance on the English for their perfidious attempt on the Smyrna fleet. The English had been joined by the French; and their combined force was 120 sail, when de Ruyter came in sight of them in Southwold Bay. A desperate engagement terminated in no decisive advantage to either side.

Louis divided his army into three bodies, under Turenne, Condé and Chamilli, and Luxembourg: the bishop of Münster and the elector of Cologne were his allies. Several towns surrendered. He passed the Rhine. Nimeguen and Utrecht opened their gates. All the provinces but Holland and Zealand submitted. Holland opened its sluices, and inundated the country; but the councils of the state were distracted by the Orange and republican parties. Offers were made to surrender Maestricht and all the frontier towns beyond the limits of the seven provinces, and to pay the expenses of the war. They were haughtily rejected. The prince of Orange was declared stadthouder, and in a moment of popular frenzy the great and good de Witt and his brother were torn to pieces. It was resolved never to submit: ships were even prepared to carry these modern Phocæans to

the East Indies, if unable to retain their country and liberty.

A. D.

The combined fleets, with an army on board, ap- 1673.
proached the coast of Holland. In a manner almost miraculous they were carried out to sea, and afterwards prevented landing their forces by violent storms. Those who regarded this as the interference of providence cannot justly be accused of superstition. Meanwhile, Louis had returned to Versailles. The emperor and the elector of Brandenburg had shown a disposition to assist the States. The king of Spain had sent them some forces, and the aspect of their affairs was brightening.

The Dutch fleet, under van Tromp and de Ruyter, engaged the combined French and English fleets under prince Rupert, in three actions, off the coast of Holland. They were, as usual, long and obstinately fought, and, as usual, undecisive.

The French took Maestricht. The prince of Orange retook Naerden. The imperialists under Montecuculi having vainly attempted the passage of the Rhine, laid siege to Bonn. The prince of Orange joined them. Bonn surrendered. The greater part of the electorate of Cologne was conquered; and the communication being thus cut off between France and the United Provinces, Louis was obliged to recall his forces and abandon his conquests. A congress held at Cologne could settle nothing. The house of Austria was terrified at the projects of Louis; the emperor and the king of Spain signed a treaty with the Dutch, and Spain declared war.

Charles, unable to get supplies from his parliament, 1674.
made peace with Holland. Louis also was desirous of peace; but the allies were eager for war. Charles in vain tried to mediate. In the next campaign Louis exerted great energy. At the head of one of his armies he conquered Franche-Compté. A furious but indecisive battle was fought at Seneffe in Brabant, between Turenne and the prince of Orange. The prince took Grave, the last town the French held in the United Provinces. Turenne was successful on the side of Germany:

he overran the Palatinate; but his laurels were tarnished by the horrible cruelties and excesses committed by his troops.

A. D. 1675. Louis again vainly sought peace. In the next campaign nothing of importance took place in Flanders. In Germany Turenne was killed by a cannon-ball, and the French army forced to recross the Rhine.

1676. The next year the French were successful in Flanders, taking Condé and Bouchain. The imperialists took Philipsburg. The French fleet defeated the combined Dutch and Spanish fleets in the Mediterranean, and rode triumphant in that sea.

1677. The Dutch were now as anxious for peace as Louis; but the prince of Orange wishing to continue the war, another campaign was opened. Louis took Valenciennes, Cambray, and St. Omer, and defeated the prince at Mount Cassal, when he attempted the relief of this last town. The French arms under Crequi and other generals were successful on the Rhine. Spain was torn by factions. A congress had been sitting all this while at Nimeguen, and a conditional treaty was entered into between France and the Dutch. The prince of Orange married in this year the daughter of the duke of York.

1678. In the following year, Louis took Ghent and Ypres. The Dutch were terrified, and signed a separate peace at Nimeguen. The allies clamoured: the prince of Orange sought to break it by an attack on a French army; but all were finally obliged to accede to it. By this treaty Louis retained Franche-Compté and Cambray, Tournay, Valenciennes, and several other towns in the Low Countries, and his power was now by far the most formidable in Europe.

England, to the Revolution.

The object of Charles II. was to establish absolute power and popery; and the people, recovering from their delirium of loyalty, gradually became jealous and suspicious of him. Episcopacy having been restored, an

1668. iniquitous attempt was made to force it on Scotland

The detestable barbarity of the government was opposed by the fierce bigotry and fanaticism of the people, and horrible cruelties were exercised to subdue them. The awakened fears and bigotry of the nation caused a *Popish Plot* to be got up in England, and several innocent catholics were judicially murdered. The jealousy of the commons against the designs of the court was ever alive, and it drove them into some measures not compatible with justice and policy. It was attempted to exclude the duke of York, a known papist, from the crown, and the *Test Act* was passed. But the court, by taking advantage of circumstances, particularly of the *Ryehouse Plot*, and secretly supplied with money by Louis, advanced rapidly in the career of despotism, or rather approached nearer the precipice over which it was to be whirled. Russel and Sidney were publicly executed; passive obedience was preached; justice was perverted. A. D. 1678. 1683.

In this state of affairs the king died. He expired in the faith of the church of Rome, which he had long secretly professed. It was indeed, morally speaking, a matter of little importance what the religious sentiments were of such a heartless, selfish profligate. It is an instance of the effect of popular manners and showy qualities on the minds of the vulgar, that this prince, the mean pensioner of France, the conspirer against the religion and liberties of his people, every one of whose acts tended to disgrace the nation, was, like Edward IV. and Henry VIII., instead of being detested, rather a favourite with the country at large. 1685.

James II., in his fanatic zeal for popery, would hearken to no remonstrance of prudence. The duke of Monmouth, a natural son of the late king, took up arms in the west of England; but was defeated, and he and numbers of his adherents executed by order of the relentless tyrant. The king proceeded in his design of changing the religion of the country, and attempted to place papists in the church and universities. Having ordered his declaration of indulgence to be read in the pulpit, the primate and six bishops petitioned against it.

They were committed to the Tower, tried, and acquitted. The joy of the people at this event was no warning to the king. The Whigs and Tories (the parties into which the nation was now divided) coalesced on the birth of a young prince, and invited over the prince of Orange to deliver the nation. The prince embarked with a large force. The troops of James deserted him. He and his queen and son fled to France. The throne was declared vacant, and the prince and princess of Orange proclaimed king and queen of England. The *Bill of Rights*, and, at a subsequent period, the *Act of Settlement*, were passed for the security of the nation.

A. D. 1688.

Such was the revolution of 1688, justly called *Glorious;* the noblest instance history presents of the salutary and irresistible power of public opinion, directed by wisdom, and aiming at just and worthy ends. It is an event to which England, as long as her name and her language exist, must look back with pride and gratitude; it stands a noble monument of bloodless resistance, amidst the scenes of cruelty, slaughter, and oppression which deform the domains of history. Before its radiance, absolute power, passive obedience, and their kindred doctrines fled like spectres of the night, to conceal themselves from human view.

Wars to the Peace of Ryswick.

After the peace of Nimeguen, Louis proceeded to act in the most arbitrary and insolent manner. He treacherously made himself master of Strasburg, and demanded Alost from the Spaniards. The Turks had at this time invaded Hungary, and occupied the imperial arms. Joined by the Hungarian malcontents, who had invited them, the Turkish army advanced towards Vienna. The vizier laid siege to that city; but the German princes collected their forces, and, under the command of John Sobieski, king of Poland, came to its relief. The Turks were seized with a panic, and fled; and they were finally driven out of Hungary. Louis, who had suspended his operations during the siege of Vienna, now

1683.

1684.

reduced Luxemburg, Courtray, and Dixmund. The emperor and Spain were forced to conclude a truce with him. He was now at the height of his power: he had a most extensive marine; had chastised the pirate states of Africa, trampled on the power and independence of Genoa, and insulted the dignity of the pope. In the A. D. ignorance of his bigotry, he revoked the edict of Nantz, 1685. treated his protestant subjects with all the injustice and cruelty that blind fanaticism could dictate, and thereby lost to France thousands of industrious citizens, who augmented the wealth and the armies of his enemies.

A league was formed at Augsburg, to restrain the en- 1687. croachments of France. Spain and Holland joined it, as also did Denmark, Sweden, and Savoy, and, finally, England, now governed by William. The emperor Leopold was at the head of the confederacy. Louis assembled two 1689. large armies in Flanders; a third was opposed to the Spaniards in Catalonia; another entered and ravaged the palatinate in a most barbarous and fiendish manner, a conduct almost peculiar to the French among civilised nations. But this detestable policy did not avail Louis: his troops were unsuccessful on all sides; and he lost Mentz and Bonn. In the next campaign he was more 1690 fortunate: the mareschal de Catinat reduced all Savoy; Luxemburg and Boufflers defeated the allies at Fleurus, and Catalonia was thrown into confusion. The Turks were successful in Hungary. The French fleet defeated the combined Dutch and English off Beachy-head. The 1691. following year, though Louis took Mons, he and his allies the Turks made little progress. Louis, the ensuing spring, took Namur; and the king of England made an 1692. unsuccessful attack on the French army at Steenkirk; Catinat was driven back, and the duke of Savoy ravaged Dauphiné. Waradin was taken from the Turks. The French fleet was defeated off La Hogue. Next year, 1693. Luxemburg defeated, at Landen, the allies, commanded by the king of England; and Catinat, those under the duke of Savoy, at the river Cisola. A French squadron dispersed and captured several ships of the Smyrna fleet. Mean-

while, France was internally suffering the effects of war. Agriculture and commerce languished; and, in the next campaign, nothing of importance was done. In the cam-
A. D. paign of 1695, William recovered Namur. In the
1696. following, no signal event occurred. All parties were now tired of war. A congress was opened at Ryswick,
1697. near Delft, and a treaty concluded, by which Louis made great concessions, acknowledging William III., and restoring to Spain almost all the places that had been united to France, and giving back Lorrain and Bar to their native princes. The gallant sultan, Mustafa II., was
1699. totally defeated at Zenta, in Hungary, by prince Eugene of Savoy, and forced to conclude a peace at Carlowitz. Tranquillity was thus for a time restored.

England.

The cause of James was supported in Scotland by the brave but cruel viscount Dundee. At the battle of Kil-
689. licranky, he was killed in the midst of victory. The presbyterian religion was re-established in that kingdom. James himself passing over to Ireland, the catholics armed in his favour. They were repulsed in their attempt on Derry, and William soon landed in Ireland,
1690. and gained the decisive battle of the Boyne. James fled to France. William invested Limerick without success; but the following year, his general, de Ginckel, defeated
1691. the Irish at Aughrim, took Athlone, and Limerick surrendered on conditions which were not subsequently very rigidly adhered to by the victorious party.

The government of William III., the ablest prince of his age, and one of the best and greatest monarchs that have sat on the English throne, was now firmly established with the consent and support of the majority of the British nation, though a strong faction still clung to the cause of the banished tyrant.

Spanish Succession.

Charles II. of Spain had no children, and his health was declining. The claimants of the crown were Louis

XIV. and the dauphin, and the emperor and the king of the Romans. Both Louis and Leopold were equally related to Charles: they were grandsons of Philip III., and married to daughters of Philip IV. A third competitor was the electoral prince of Bavaria. Right of birth was with the Bourbons, as the king and the dauphin were descended from the eldest infantas; but the imperial family pleaded the renunciations made by Louis XIII. and XIV., and, as the descendants of Maximilian, the right of male representation. The electoral prince claimed in right of his mother, the only surviving child of the emperor Leopold by the infanta Margaret, second daughter of Philip IV., who had declared her descendants heir to the crown, in preference to those of his eldest daughter. It was for the interest of Europe that the Bavarian prince should succeed; but he was unable to contend with his rivals. No power was inclined for war. Louis and Leopold secretly intrigued at Madrid. The body of the Spanish nation was for the former; the queen and her party for the emperor. Meantime France, A. D. England, and Holland secretly signed a treaty of parti- 1698. tion, to give Spain, America, and the Netherlands to the electoral prince; Naples, Sicily, some places in Italy and Spain to the dauphin; and the duchy of Milan to Charles, the emperor's second son.

This treaty coming to the knowledge of the court of Spain, filled it with rage. The king made a will in favour of the electoral prince. England and Holland were well pleased at this; but the sudden death of that prince 1699. revived their apprehensions. A second treaty of partition was secretly signed by the same powers, giving the 1700. electoral prince's part to the archduke Charles, and Milan to the duke of Lorrain, who was to cede his territories to the dauphin; and care was taken to prevent, in any case, the crown of Spain being united to that of France or the empire.

The emperor rejected the treaty of partition, and the king of Spain nominated the archduke his heir. The nobles and clergy of Spain were for the Bourbons. The

archbishop of Toledo prevailed on the king to write to consult the pope; and Innocent XII., aware that the liberties of Italy depended on restraining the imperial
A. D. power, required him to prefer the family of Bourbon.
1701. A new will was secretly made, in which the duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, was declared heir. Charles died soon afterwards, and Louis, after some hesitation, accepting the succession, the young king was crowned, under the title of Philip V.; and England and Holland found it necessary to acknowledge him. Leopold disputed his title, and sent an army into Italy, to support his claim to Milan. He met there with signal success: the English and Dutch, after some fruitless negotiations with France, resolved to support him. He gained the elector of Brandenburg by creating him king of Prussia; and the king of Denmark was ready to aid him.

A treaty, called the Grand Alliance, was signed by the plenipotentiaries of the emperor, the States General, and the king of England. The avowed objects of it were, to procure the emperor satisfaction respecting the Spanish succession, to prevent the union of the French and Spanish monarchies, &c. Neither England nor Holland would agree to support the emperor in his demand of all the Spanish dominions.

1702. On the death of William III., his successor, queen Anne, declared her resolution to adhere to the Grand Alliance, and war was declared by the three powers against France. In the first campaign, the French defeated the imperialists on the Upper Rhine; but the earl of Marlborough made great progress in Flanders, and the combined fleets of England and Holland captured the Spanish galleons, and took and burned a French fleet in
1703. Vigo bay. The duke of Savoy, long irresolute, at length joined the allies, as did also the king of Portugal. The elector of Bavaria and Marshal Villars defeated the imperialists at Hochstadt. The French had the advantage in Italy and Alsace. In Flanders, the genius of Marlborough kept them in check. The emperor now directed his son Charles to assume the title of king of Spain.

A. D

The emperor was almost besieged in his capital 1704
by the Hungarian malcontents on one side, and the French and Bavarians on the other. Marlborough, as the United Provinces were now secured, resolved to march into Germany, to the aid of Leopold. He crossed the Rhine at Coblentz, and meeting prince Eugene at Mondelsheim, a junction was agreed on between the allies and the imperial troops under the duke of Baden. They forced the entrenchments of the elector of Bavaria at Donawert. The elector was reinforced by 30,000 French under Tallard: prince Eugene joined Marlborough with 20,000. Each army consisted of about 60,000 men, when they engaged (Aug. 13.) near the village of Blenheim, on the banks of the Danube. The victory of the allies was signal; 30,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, and taken: the loss of the allies was 5000 killed, and 7000 wounded. All Bavaria was overrun; the victors crossed the Rhine, and entered Alsace. In Italy and Spain the advantage was on the side of the French; but the important fortress of Gibraltar was taken by the English.

Next year the French maintained their superiority in 1705.
Italy; but in Spain almost the whole of Valencia and Catalonia submitted to Charles. In Flanders Marlborough was unable to effect any thing. Leopold died this year.

Louis now resolved to strain every nerve to maintain 1706.
an army in Germany, support his grandson in Spain, strip the duke of Savoy of his dominions, and act offensively in Flanders. The ardour of Villeroy in the latter country destroyed all his projects: this general, though with a superior force, gave battle to Marlborough at Ramillies, and was defeated, with the loss of 7000 killed, and 6000 prisoners. All Brabant, and nearly all Spanish Flanders, submitted to the conquerors. In Italy the French, under the duke of Orleans, were attacked and driven out of their camp before Turin, by prince Eugene; and the house of Bourbon in consequence lost all the territories it claimed in Italy. In Spain the French and Spaniards were repulsed in their attack on Barcelona,

and the English and Portuguese entered Madrid, which they were, however, unable to retain. Most advantageous terms were now offered by Louis to the allies; but the self-interest of Marlborough, Eugene, and the pensionary Heinsius, prevented their being accepted, though without any farther effusion of blood all the objects of the grand alliance might now be attained.

A.D.
1707. Louis collected all his energies: his troops being obliged to evacuate Milan, Mantua, and Modena, he sent them to the aid of his grandson; and (April 26) the duke of Berwick (a natural son of James II.) gained a most decisive victory over the confederates, under the earl of Galway and the marquis las Minas, at Almanza. The duke of Orleans reduced Valencia and part of Aragon. Prince Eugene and the duke of Savoy entered France and laid siege to Toulon, but were forced to abandon the
1708. enterprise. Enraged by a futile attempt of Louis in favour of the son of James II., the English parliament adopted most vigorous measures for continuing the war. Marlborough passed over to Flanders, where the French had taken Ghent and Bruges; and though not yet joined by Eugene, he crossed the Scheld, and came up with the French army, commanded by the duke of Vendôme, at Oudenarde. The battle was obstinate, and lasted till night, during which the French fled, leaving the glory of the victory with the allies. Prince Eugene now formed the siege of and took Lisle; and Ghent and Bruges were recovered. The French had rather the advantage in Spain and Italy; but Sardinia and Minorca surrendered to the English admiral Leake.

1709. Again Louis offered the most honourable and advantageous terms to the allies: he was willing to cede all the Spanish dominions to Charles, to give back to the emperor all his conquests on the Upper Rhine, to acknowledge the succession established in England, the king of Prussia, &c.—in a word, to do every thing that justice could possibly demand. Again the passions and selfishness of those three above-named persons retarded the repose of Europe. The French monarch appealed to

his people, and, though wasted by famine, they resolved on new efforts.

The allied army, 100,000 strong, was formed on the plains of Lisle. Villars, who commanded the French forces, covered Douay and Arras. Eugene and Marlborough, deeming it imprudent to attack him, drew off, and sat down before Tournay. That strong city was reduced. They invested Mons. Villars encamped within a league of it, at Malplaquet. The allies attacked him (Sept. 11.) in the strong position he occupied: the contest was obstinate and bloody: the allies remained masters of the field, with the loss of 15,000 men; the French retreated, with the loss of 10,000, the armies having been of nearly equal strength. Mons surrendered. Little of importance was done elsewhere. Louis again A. D. 1710.
applied for peace, and a conference was appointed at Gertruydenburg. He was willing to make still farther concessions; but the insolence and extravagance of the demands of the States, to whom the negotiation was committed, was such, that it was not possible for him with any honour to accede to them. Eugene and Marlborough reduced Douay, and other towns. Villars declined a battle. In Spain, Philip and Charles engaged each other at Almenara and Saragossa, and Charles was victorious in each conflict. He entered Madrid. More troops arriving from France, the Spanish nobles made every effort for Philip. Vendôme took the command, and forced the English general Stanhope to surrender, with 5000 men, at Brihuega, but was himself beaten at Villa Viciosa by count Staremburg, with a far inferior force.

A great portion of the English nation was now grown tired of the expenses of the war; a change had taken place in its ministry, the Tories having come into power; the emperor Joseph was dead, and his brother Charles had 1711.
succeeded him in the empire. As by the grand alliance the imperial and Spanish crowns could not be held by the same person, a great difficulty in the way of adjustment was now removed. After an inactive campaign, conferences for peace were opened at Utrecht, where the

treaties were at last signed, on the 31st of March, 1713, by the plenipotentiaries of France, England, Portugal, the United Provinces, Prussia, and Savoy; the emperor and the king of Spain refusing to be included.

It was stipulated that Philip should renounce all title to the crown of France, and the dukes of Berri and Orleans to that of Spain; that in case of the failure of male issue of Philip, the duke of Savoy should succeed to the crown of Spain; that Naples, Milan, and the Spanish territories on the Tuscan coast should be ceded to the house of Austria, and that house secured in the possession of the Spanish Netherlands; that the Rhine should be the boundary between France and Germany, &c. &c. The acquisitions of England were chiefly in America: she was to retain Gibraltar and Minorca, to have the Asiento or contract for supplying the Spanish settlements with negroes for thirty years; and Louis acknowledged the settlement of the English throne. But the real gain was on the side of Louis, who obtained all that the war had been engaged in to prevent his acquiring. This treaty brought well-merited odium on the English ministry.

A. D. 1714. The following year the emperor made peace at Rastadt, on less favourable terms than were offered him at Utrecht. The king of Spain also acceded to the pacification, and Europe rested from war.

In this year died Louis XIV., the disturber of Europe for nearly half a century. His great grandson and successor being a minor, the duke of Orleans was appointed regent.

North of Europe—Peter the Great—Charles XII.

The people of Denmark, to escape the tyranny of the nobles, solemnly surrendered their liberties to Frede-
1670. ric III., in 1661. His successor, Christian V., made war on Charles XI. of Sweden, whose father, Charles X., had been called to the throne, on the abdication of Christina, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus. Charles XII., a minor,
1697. succeeded his father, Charles XI.

Alexei of Russia was followed by his son Theodore, A. D.
who, dying early, appointed his half-brother Peter to 1682.
succeed; but his sister Sophia, aided by the Strelitzes,
attempted to secure the power for herself. Peter being
but ten years of age, she made his imbecile brother Ivan
Tsar, and associated Peter with him. At the age of seven-
teen Peter succeeded in subverting the power of Sophia,
and obtained the full royal dignity and influence. He
defeated the Turks at Azoph, which opened to him the 1696.
Black Sea. He formed vast plans for the improvement of
his empire, and he spent a year in Holland and England,
making himself acquainted with the useful arts.

Eager to distinguish himself in war, he joined the 1701.
kings of Poland and Denmark against the young king of
Sweden. Charles, though a youth, showed himself a
hero. He made an alliance with Holland and England,
landed in Denmark, laid siege to Copenhagen, and forced
the king to a peace. The Russians had, meantime, be-
sieged Narva with 80,000 men. Charles hasted thither
with 10,000, forced their intrenchments, killed 18,000,
and took 30,000 prisoners. Next year he defeated the 1702.
Poles and Saxons on the Duna, and overran Livonia,
Courland, and Lithuania.

Augustus elector of Saxony was king of Poland: his
new subjects were dissatisfied with him. Charles formed
the design of dethroning him by their means. He de-
feated him at Clissau, between Warsaw and Cracow, and
this last city surrendered. Augustus engaged him again
at Pultausk, and was again defeated. He fled to Thorn. 1703.
The throne was pronounced vacant by the diet, in which
the intrigues of Charles prevailed, and Stanislaus Lec- 1704.
zinzky was chosen king.

Peter, having retaken Narva, sent 60,000 men into
Poland: a Saxon army entered it under general Schalem-
burg; but Charles soon drove the Russians out of the
country, and his general Renschild defeated Schalemburg 1706.
at Frauenstadt with great slaughter. The king of Swe-
den entered and overran Saxony, and forced Augustus
to recognise Stanislaus. Having made the emperor com- 1707.

ply with his demands, Charles returned to Poland, with 40,000 men. He attempted, though it was winter, to march to Moscow; but the Tsar had destroyed the roads. Urged by Mazeppa, chief of the Cossacks, who
A. D. offered to join him with 30,000 men, and supply him
1708. with provisions, he entered the Ukraine. Here he encountered nothing but disappointment. Mazeppa's plans had been discovered; no supplies were provided: general Lewenhaupt, whom he had ordered to join him with 15,000 men from Livonia, arrived with his army reduced to 4000 men. Though urged by his ministers to retreat, or to winter in the Ukraine, he madly resolved to proceed. He laid siege to Pultowa, a strong town. His army was now reduced to less than 30,000 men; the Tzar, at the head of 70,000, approached to its relief. Charles, leaving 7000 to conduct the siege, ad-
1709. vanced to give him battle. (July 8.) The result of the conflict was, that Charles, with 300 men, sought a refuge with the Turks at Bender. The entire Swedish army were killed or taken. Augustus recovered Poland; and, but for the emperor and the maritime powers, Sweden would have been dismembered.

After an abode of nearly five years in Turkey, Charles returned to his own dominions, and conducted the war against the Danes and Saxons. He was at length killed
1718. before the fortress of Fredericshall, in Norway. His sister Ulrica was crowned queen.

Peter, justly styled the Great, having given his country a rank among European powers, introduced into her civilisation and the arts, and founded a capital in the north of his dominions, took the title of emperor. But he never was able to subdue the native ferocity of his own temper, and he put to death his son Alexis for no
1725. just cause. He left his crown to his wife, the famous Catherine I.

England.

The chief domestic events in Great Britain were the union with Scotland, accomplished in 1706, and the set-

A. D.

tlement of the crown on Sophia, duchess dowager of 1701.
Hanover, and her heirs, being protestants. This princess was daughter of Elizabeth, daughter of James I., who was married to the unfortunate elector palatine.

CHAP. VI.

PERIOD OF COMPARATIVE REPOSE.

England.

On the death of queen Anne, George elector of Ha- 1714.
nover was, by virtue of the act of settlement, proclaimed king. The power of the state was now committed to the Whigs, and the late Tory ministers, who had been desirous of securing the succession of the son of James II., now called the Pretender, were impeached of high treason. Louis XIV. had refused to take any share in the projects of the Pretender, but, on his death, the regent of France secretly encouraged him. His partisans 1715.
rose in arms in the Highlands of Scotland and the west of England. The English rebels were forced to surrender at Preston; and the battle of Sheriff-Muir, though not decisive, crushed the hopes of the northern rebels. The Pretender himself landed in Scotland, but, finding his affairs desperate, retired.

In this reign was passed the act for making parliaments *septennial* instead of *triennial*, which they had previously been. George II. succeeded his father. 1727.

The Quadruple Alliance.

Philip V. had, after the death of his first queen, mar- 1714.
ried Elizabeth Farnese, presumptive heiress of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany. She was a woman of spirit, and governed that weak monarch; she was herself directed by Alberoni, a native of Placentia. This bold statesman formed the project of recovering all the dominions ceded at the peace of Utrecht, especially those

in Italy. He laboured to put the finances of Spain on the best footing; he intrigued in every court; he persuaded Philip that his renunciation of the crown of France was invalid, and that he had even a right to the regency of that kingdom. Alberoni encouraged the Scottish Jacobites, and inflamed the French malcontents, and a plot was formed for a rising in Poitou, and a seizure of the person of the regent.

The exorbitant ambition of the court of Spain determined the regent to enter into an alliance with England, Holland, and the emperor, to maintain the treaty of Utrecht. This was called the Quadruple Alliance. One of its articles was, that the duke of Savoy should exchange Sicily with the emperor for Sardinia, of which he was to take the title of king; and by another, Don Carlos, son of the young queen of Spain, was to succeed to Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany, on the death of the present possessors without issue.

A. D. 1718. This alliance made no change in the conduct of the court of Spain, who had already taken possession of Sardinia and a part of Sicily, and France and England declared war against her. An English fleet, under sir George Byng, entered the Mediterranean, defeated the Spanish fleet near Sicily, and that island and Sardinia were recovered. The duke of Berwick reduced St. Sebastian and Fontarabia, and Philip was obliged to dismiss Alberoni, and accede to the terms of the quadruple 1720. alliance.

1725. A private treaty was afterwards concluded between the emperor and the king of Spain at Vienna. This treaty gave umbrage to England, France, and Holland; and to counteract it one was concluded at Hanover 1726. between them and Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden. The emperor and the king of Spain remained quiet; but the English fitted out three fleets, one of which, under admiral Hosier, was sent to the West Indies to block up the galleons at Porto Bello; but the attempt was a complete failure. The Spaniards, in return, laid siege to Gibraltar. By the mediation of France a treaty was

A. D.

made at Seville, by which it was agreed that all the 1729
stipulations of the quadruple alliance should be fulfilled.

The treaty of Seville was confirmed by the emperor, 1731
and the Spanish troops took possession of Parma and Placentia. The contracting powers agreed to guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction, or law by which the emperor secured to his female heirs the succession of the Austrian dominions in case of his dying without male issue, and the peace of Europe was now restored.

But, on the death of Augustus king of Poland, Stanis- 1733.
laus, who was recommended by the king of France, who had married his daughter, being a second time chosen king, the emperor and the Russians made the Poles proceed to another election, and choose the elector of Saxony, son of Augustus. The king of France entered into an alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and war was commenced against the emperor in Germany and Italy. The French arms were successful in Germany. In two campaigns the Spaniards became masters of Naples and Sicily; the troops of France and Savoy took Milan and other places, and gave the imperialists two complete defeats at Parma and at Guastella. The emperor was now desirous of peace; and as the pacific Fleury directed the councils of France, a treaty was easily brought about. Stanislaus was to resign his 1735
claim to the crown of Poland for the duchy of Lorrain, the duke of Lorrain being secured by Louis an annual pension of 3,500,000 livres till the death of John Gaston, the last of the house of Medici, and in that event the duchy of Tuscany; the emperor was to acknowledge Don Carlos as king of the two Sicilies, and to receive the duchies of Parma and Placentia; Novara and Tortona were to be given to the king of Sardinia; France was to give back her conquests in Germany, and to guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction. Peace was made at 1738.
Vienna on these terms.

Russia.

A. D. Catherine reigned but two years after the death of
1727. Peter. She died in the 38th year of her age, and her son Peter became emperor. After a short reign of three
1730. years, Peter also died. The Dolgoruki family, as the male line of the house of Romanov expired in him, thought this a favourable occasion for gaining the love of the nation by limiting the imperial authority. Deputies were sent to offer the crown, on certain conditions, to Anne, the widow of the duke of Courland, and daughter of the Tsar Ivan, brother of Peter the Great. She accepted the conditions; but when she found herself fixed on the throne, she tore the contract, and ruled with absolute power. Having no children, Anne fixed on marrying the daughter of her sister Catherine, duchess of Mecklenburg, also named Anne, to some foreign prince, and settling the succession on the offspring of their marriage. The princess was, therefore, united to Anton Ulrich of Brunswick-Bevern, by whom she bare
1740. a son named Ivan, who succeeded the empress.

Turkish wars.

The Turks had, in 1669, taken Candia from the Venetians. By the peace of Carlowitz (1699), the Venetians obtained the Morea, and some places in Dalmatia. While Charles XII. was in Turkey a war broke out between the Turks and Russians; but the Tsar, who had advanced to the Pruth, being greatly outnumbered
1711. by the army of the vizier, was glad to conclude a treaty.
1715. Immediately after the peace of Utrecht, sultan Ahmed III. declared war against the Venetians, and overran the Morea. The emperor, Charles VI., as guarantee of the peace of Carlowitz, declared war against the Turks, and prince Eugene gave the troops of the sultan a total defeat at Peterwaradin. He laid siege to Belgrade, de-
1717. feated an army that came to its relief, and compelled it to surrender.
1718. A peace was made at Passarowitz, by which the Turks

surrendered Belgrade and the Bannat of Temiswar, but retained the Morea.

A. D.

Under the pretext of the incursions of the Nogai 1736.
Tatars not being checked, the empress of Russia declared war against Turkey. A Russian army, under Münnich took possession of the Crimea. In the following campaign the town of Oczacoff was taken by storm. The 1737
emperor now joined the Russians, as he was bound to do by treaty; but the imperial arms met little success, and a peace was concluded, to which the Russian empress, though her forces had gained a great victory at Chotin, was obliged to accede. Belgrade, Sabatch, and the Austrian part of Servia, were ceded to Turkey; Russia 1739.
retained Azoph.

Persia — Nadir Shah.

The dynasty of the Suffavies had occupied the throne of Persia for 220 years. Their latter princes had been effeminate sensualists, and capricious tyrants. In the reign of Shah Hoossein, Mahmood, an Affghan prince, 1722.
invaded Persia, defeated the troops of Hoossein, and forced him to abdicate in his favour. Tamasp, the son of Hoossein, struggled ineffectually against the usurper. The Turks and the Russians invaded Persia. Mahmood 1725.
dying, was succeeded by Ashraff, a valiant Affghan chief: but Tamasp was now supported by Nadir Kooli, who, from a low rank in one of the Turkish tribes in Khorassan, had, by his valour and talents, raised himself to power and importance. The fortune of war was adverse to the Affghan monarch; he was defeated, and 1729.
afterwards slain.

Nadir was presented by Shah Tamasp with the four finest provinces of the empire. He turned his arms with success against the Turks; but while he was absent in Khorassan, Tamasp marched against them, was defeated, and reduced to make an ignominious peace. Nadir, inveighing against this national disgrace, dethroned the unhappy prince, and occupied his place. He then 1732.
commenced operations anew against the Turkish forces,

and defeated them. Offended at a breach of friendship by the emperor of India, Nadir invaded that country.
A. D. One great victory, near Delhi, laid the power of the
1738. descendant of Timoor at his feet. Upwards of 30,000,000 sterling of booty, and the annexation of the country west of the Indus to his dominions, rewarded the victory of Nadir, who committed less crimes in so great a conquest than almost any Asiatic victor. He afterwards subdued the kings of Bokhara and Khowaresm, and gained a final victory over the Turks in Armenia. For the last five years of his life, Nadir exercised the most dreadful tyranny: he blinded his brave son, Riza Kooli, massacred his subjects by thousands, and was at length as-
1747. sassinated by his own officers. His nephew, Adil Shah, seized on the supreme power, and murdered all the family of Nadir but his grandson, Shah Rokh, who ruled Khorassan while Persia was struggled for by contending chiefs.

CHAP. VII.

TIMES OF FREDERIC II.

The Silesian Wars.

1740. THE emperor Charles VI. was succeeded in his hereditary dominions by his daughter Maria Theresa, who was in her twenty-fourth year, and married to Francis duke of Lorrain, now grand duke of Tuscany. Various princes laid claim to the whole or a part of her dominions; but allegiance was readily sworn to her by all her subjects, and by her voluntarily taking the oath of their ancient sovereigns, she completely gained the affections of the Hungarians.

1741. The first power by which she was assailed was Prussia. Frederic William, the late king, had amassed a consi-

derable treasure, and formed an army of 60,000 men. His son, Frederic II., was young, talented, and ambitious: he resolved to take advantage of the present state of the queen of Hungary, and he revived an antiquated claim to a part of Silesia. At the head of 30,000 men he overran a great part of that province, and took Breslau, its capital. He offered to aid the queen with men and money to protect the rest of her dominions, and to assist in obtaining the imperial throne for her husband, if she would cede to him Lower Silesia. Maria refused, and sent an army against him: their forces met at Molwitz, near Neiss, and the superiority of the Prussian infantry won the day.

France had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, and Fleury wished to observe it; but the princes and the young nobility were eager for war, and represented that the time was come for humbling the house of Austria, and exalting that of Bourbon, by diminishing the Austrian dominions, and raising to the imperial dignity the elector of Bavaria, the stipendiary of France.

The moderation of Louis yielded to these brilliant prospects: treaties of spoliation and division were made with the elector of Bavaria and the kings of Prussia and Poland. The French forces were put in motion; Louis appointed the elector of Bavaria to be his lieutenant-general, with the marshals Belleisle and Broglio under him. The king of England, fearing for his German dominions, concluded a treaty of neutrality for Hanover.

The elector of Bavaria, being joined by Broglio, surprised Passau, and entering Upper Austria, took Lintz and menaced Vienna. The queen fled to Hungary, and, with her infant son in her arms, called on the assembled nobles for protection. They swore to defend her cause till death.* These were not idle words; crowds of warriors rushed to the field. To the astonishment of her enemies, 30,000 Hungarians marched to the relief of Vienna. The elector retired into Bohemia, where, joined by 15,000 Saxons, he took Prague, and having been

* Moriamur pro rege nostro Maria Theresa.

A. D. 1742. crowned king of Bohemia, proceeded to Frankfort, where he was chosen emperor under the name of Charles VII.

The English nation was eager for war; the pacific sir Robert Walpole was obliged to retire from the helm of the state; his successors resolved to assist the queen of Hungary; troops were sent to the Netherlands, and a subsidy voted to the queen. Meantime, the Austrians had recovered Lintz, and they entered Bavaria, and took Munich. Another army advanced against the king of Prussia, who had entered Moravia, which was to be a part of his share of the spoil. He retired before it, abandoning Olmutz which he had taken. The Austrians now intended uniting all their forces against Broglio and Belleisle; but the king of Prussia, having been reinforced, marched to their aid, and gave battle to prince Charles of Lorrain at Czaslau, where, after an obstinate conflict, the prince was forced to retire with the loss of 4000 men. Immediately after this battle, the king of Prussia made at Breslau a separate treaty with the queen of Hungary, who ceded to him Silesia and Glatz, on condition of his neutrality. A treaty was at the same time concluded with the king of Poland.

The court of France was filled with indignation at the conduct of the king of Prussia. Broglio and Belleisle retired under the walls of Prague, and offered to surrender all their conquests in Bohemia for permission to retire. The queen insisted on their surrendering as prisoners of war. They indignantly refused. Maillebois, who commanded on the Rhine, marched with 40,000 men to their relief. Being joined by 30,000 Bavarians and French, he entered Bohemia; but, unable to join Broglio and Belleisle, he was obliged to retire to the Palatinate. The French were blockaded in Prague. Belleisle made a most gallant defence, and at last secretly left the city, and conducted his army in safety to Egra in the midwinter, and through a country possessed by the enemy.

The Spaniards had sent an army to seize the Italian dominions of the house of Austria; but by the active exertions of the English fleet, and of the king of Sardinia

and the Austrian general Traun, they gained little advantage. The court of Versailles now made offers of peace on most equitable terms; but the queen, elated with success, rejected all pacific measures. The imperialists were defeated at Brannau; the French were driven towards the Rhine; and the emperor was obliged to take refuge at Frankfort, where he lived in indigence and obscurity.

The British and Hanoverian troops under the earl of Stair, and the Austrians under the duke of Aremburg, marched from the Low Countries towards Germany. The French army under the duke of Noailles was posted near Frankfort. The king of England had arrived in the camp of the allies. Noailles had cut off all their supplies. It was expected that they must surrender or be cut to pieces in their retreat. The retreat began: their route lay between a mountain and the Main. Noailles had taken possession of the village of Dettingen in their front. His dispositions were admirable; but having repassed the river, his nephew, the duke of Grammont, advanced (June 26.) into a small plain to engage the allies. Noailles saw, but could not remedy, this act of imprudence: the impetuosity of the French was forced to yield to the steadiness of the allies, and they were driven over the Main with the loss of 5000 men. The victory was productive of no important results.

The haughty conduct of Maria Theresa began now to give great offence in the empire; several princes entered into a private negotiation with Charles VII.; the king of Prussia promised his aid on his usual terms—increase of territory. A family compact was entered into between A. D. France and Spain, and an invasion of England attempted 1744. in favour of the pretender. In Italy, the French and Spaniards were successful. A treaty was formed at Frankfort between the emperor, the king of Prussia, the elector palatine, and the landgraf of Hesse Cassel. The French arms were victorious in Flanders: the king of Prussia invaded Bohemia; but he was driven out of it with the loss of 20,000 men, and all his baggage and

artillery. The emperor had recovered his dominions and capital; but, on the retreat of the Prussians, he was
A. D. again expecting to lose them, when death came to his
1745. relief. His son Maximilian, being only seventeen years of age, concluded a treaty of peace with the queen of Hungary. She agreed to recognise the imperial dignity of his late father, and to put him in possession of all his hereditary dominions; and he renounced all claim to any part of the Austrian succession, and promised to give his vote for the grand duke of Tuscany at the ensuing election of an emperor.

France and Spain resolved to continue the war. Elizabeth Farnese, who still directed the councils of the latter, was determined to gain a sovereignty in Italy for her second son Philip. The republic of Genoa concluded an alliance with the house of Bourbon: the army of the confederates was more than double that opposed to it, and Milan, Pavia, and several other towns were taken. A large French army marched to the Main, to hold the queen of Hungary in check; another of 76,000 men, under marshal Saxe, invested Tournay. The allied army of 50,000 men resolved to attempt its relief. The king and dauphin were in the French camp, and Saxe posted his troops strongly behind the village of Fontenoy. (April 30.) The allies attacked: the action commenced at nine, and lasted till three. The efforts made by the British infantry were incredible; but not being duly supported by the Dutch and Austrians, they were obliged to retire, after having lost 10,000 men. The victory of the French cost them nearly an equal loss. But Tournay, Ghent, Ostend, and several other towns, became their reward.

The grand duke was meanwhile elected emperor, under the title of Francis I. The king of Prussia gained two bloody victories over the Austrian troops, and he entered Saxony and took Dresden. Peace was then concluded between him and the queen of Hungary, and the king of Poland.

1746. Brussels was taken by marshal Saxe, and all Flan-

ders, Hainault, and Brabant reduced. Prince Charles of Lorrain was unable to check the progress of Saxe; Namur surrendered, and the indecisive battle of Roucoux ended the campaign. In Italy, the arms of France and her allies were less successful: an attack on the camp of prince Lichtenstein at St. Lazaro failed, with great loss. The king of Sardinia formed a junction with the Austrians; the French and Spaniards were driven under the walls of Genoa, and forced to retire into France and Savoy; and Genoa surrendered, and was treated in worse than the usual Austrian mode in Italy. The Austrians, under count Brown, 50,000 strong, invaded Provence, but were soon obliged to retire, and the Genoese rose and expelled them from their city.

A. D.
1747. The French, under Lowendahl, invaded the United Provinces, and took several towns. The Dutch, become suspicious of their rulers, renewed, in the person of William Henry prince of Orange, the dignity of stadthouder, which had been discontinued since the death of William III. New energy was infused into their councils. The allies, under the duke of Cumberland, gave battle to Saxe at Val, on his way to invest Maestricht; but, the British not being properly supported, the advantage remained with the French. Bergen-op-Zoom was besieged, and carried by assault by Lowendahl. Nice and Villafranca were meanwhile taken by Belleisle in Italy, and an army of Austrians and Piedmontese formed, but were forced to raise the siege of Genoa. The English were successful at sea. Louis became anxious for peace.

1748. A congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle. Saxe laid siege to Maestricht: while he was occupied in it, a cessation of arms was ordered, and peace was concluded at the end of the year. Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla were ceded to Philip, with provision against their being united to the crown of Spain or of the Two Sicilies. Silesia and Glatz were guaranteed to the king of Prussia, whose selfish policy began the war, and who was the only real gainer by it. France and England, by all their waste of blood and treasure, gained—nothing.

England.

During these continental wars England had enjoyed internal tranquillity, till, in 1745, Charles Edward, son of the pretender, landed in the north of Scotland, and was joined by several of the Highland clans. There being no adequate force there to oppose them, they took possession of Dunkeld, Perth, Dundee, and Edinburgh. At Preston Pans they defeated the royal troops. After some delay they marched into England, took Carlisle, and advanced as far as Derby. But not finding themselves to be joined by the English Jacobites, they retreated homewards. Carlisle was retaken by the duke of Cumberland; but Stirling fell into the hands of the rebels, and general Hawley, who was coming to its relief, was routed by them at Falkirk. On the advance of the duke of Cumberland, the pretender retired northwards, followed
A. D. by the royal army. The final and fatal battle to the
1746. hopes of the pretender was fought at Culloden (April 16). After long skulking in various disguises, and experiencing a fidelity and honour creditable to the national character, he made his escape to France. The barbarity exercised by the victors would disgrace the best of causes. Perhaps, few greater instances of human folly could be shown than this blind attachment to an obstinate, tyrannical, and bigoted family.

Russia.

In the semi-barbarous court of Russia, revolution succeeded revolution, and ended in placing Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catherine, on the throne. She nominated as her successor Charles Peter Ulrick duke of Holstein, son of her sister Anna. She had him
1744. styled Grand Prince, and he espoused Sophia Augusta, princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, who took the name of Catherine Alexievna. This prince had had his choice of the crowns of Sweden and Russia. He unfortunately chose the latter.

The Seven Years' War.

Europe enjoyed but short repose after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. France and England still quarrelled about boundaries in America, and still carried on war in India. England, as war seemed inevitable, wished to make it solely a naval one; and it was arranged to put Hanover under the protection of the king of Prussia. The court of France was displeased at this project; and the court of Vienna hoped, by means of this displeasure, to recover Silesia, and to free itself from the fears it entertained of the ambition of Frederic. The houses of Bourbon and Habsburg laid aside their jealousy, of two hundred and eighty years' standing, and concluded an alliance: they were joined by Sweden and Saxony. The empress of Russia, who was bound to aid the king of Prussia in protecting Hanover, declared against him. Spain, Portugal, the Italian powers, and the United Provinces remained neutral. Prussia and England stood alone. A. D. 1755.

The island of Minorca was taken by the French; and their arms were successful in India and America. The king of Prussia entered Saxony, and made himself master of Dresden: he invaded Bohemia, and routed the Austrians at Lowesitz; the Saxon army surrendered at Ebenhert. 1756.

The marshal d'Estrées passed the Rhine, with eighty thousand men, to invade Hanover. The duke of Cumberland, with forty thousand Hanoverians and Hessians, attempted its defence, but was driven across the Weser; and the French became masters of the electorate. The Prussians entered Bohemia in four divisions: that commanded by the prince of Bevern obliged the Austrians to retire at Reichenberg. This division, and that of marshal Schwerin, united with the one led by the king, engaged the Austrian army under prince Charles of Lorrain and count Brown, at Prague. The Prussians were victorious, and besieged the Austrians in that town; but having been defeated at Colin, they raised the siege, 1757.

and evacuated Bohemia. The combined German and French army had meantime advanced into Saxony: the king of Prussia hastened to Dresden, assembled an army and at the village of Rosbach (Nov. 5.) gave them battle, with but half their number of men. His victory was brilliant, his loss being but five hundred, while that of the enemy was nine thousand killed, wounded, and taken. The Austrians had defeated the prince of Bevern, and taken Breslau. Frederic gave them battle, and defeated them at Lissa: Breslau was recovered. The Russians, who had entered the Prussian dominions, were forced, by want of provisions, to return home: the Swedes were driven under the walls of Stralsund: the Hanoverians rose against the French; but the English were unsuccessful in North America, and at sea.

A. D. 1758. At the head of the Hanoverians, prince Ferdinand of Brunswick obliged the French to cross the Rhine, and defeated them at Crevelt. The king of Prussia recovered Schweidnitz, and invested Olmutz; but the approach of a large Russian force obliged him to raise the siege. At Zorndorf he defeated them with great slaughter. At Hochkirchen he was himself defeated by the Austrians: he afterwards forced them to retire into Bohemia. Marshal Daun was obliged to retire from before Dresden, and Frederic entered it in triumph.

The English admirals Hawke and Anson restored the lustre of the British arms at sea. In America, the islands of Cape Breton and St. John's were taken by general Amherst; the French settlements on the coast of Africa were reduced. In India, the advantage was on the side of the French.

1759. At the commencement of the next campaign, the Prussian arms were victorious on all sides. The French had made themselves masters of Frankfort on the Main. Prince Ferdinand, with an inferior force, attacked the duke of Broglio at Bergen, in its vicinity, but was forced to retire with some loss. The French reduced Minden, Münster, and some other places. To save Hanover, the prince found it necessary to give them

battle: the conflict took place (Aug. 8.) at Minden: the French were defeated. The blame of the victory not being complete was laid on lord George Sackville, the English commander.

The Russians defeated the Prussian general Wedel in Silesia. Frederic attacked the combined Austrian and Russian army, of eighty thousand men, at Cunersdorf; and the horrible carnage of the day ended in the defeat of the Prussians: yet Frederic, almost immediately after, forced his enemies to act on the defensive.

The French army in Westphalia was extremely numerous: a portion of it was defeated by prince Ferdinand at Warburg; but the French remained masters of Hesse. The Austrians and Russians poured into the dominions and conquests of Frederic, and in his camp at Lignitz he was in danger of being surrounded by three hostile armies. He advanced to meet, and defeated that of general Laudohn, and thus escaped; but the Russians and Austrians entered Brandenburg, and pillaged Berlin. Frederic rushed into Saxony at the head of fifty thousand men, followed by Daun with seventy thousand men; and at Torgau the Prussian monarch gained a hard-fought battle.

The English took the island of Guadaloupe, in the West Indies: Crown Point and Ticonderoga were taken by general Amherst. Quebec, after the defeat of the French army by general Wolfe, surrendered. The British arms were victorious in India. Admirals Boscawen and Hawke defeated the French fleets off Cape Lagos and Belleisle.

A. D.
George II. died; but his successor resolved to continue 1761.
the war. A family compact was concluded between the courts of Versailles and Madrid. Prince Ferdinand repelled an attack of the French armies at Kirche Denkern; and Belleisle was taken by a British force.

War was now mutually declared by the courts of London 1762.
and Madrid. Portugal, refusing to join the alliance against England, was invaded by the Spaniards; but they were driven out of it by the British and native troops. Prince Ferdinand was every where successful in Westphalia.

The death of the empress of Russia relieved the king of Prussia from his apparently desperate situation. Peter III. was mild and pacific: he made a peace and alliance with the Prussian monarch. Frederic carried on the war with vigour against the Austrians; but the dethronement and death of his Russian ally perplexed him, as he knew not what the policy of Catherine II. might be: she continued the peace, but recalled her troops. Frederic recovered Silesia. A cessation of arms was made for Saxony and Silesia. Frederic ravaged Bohemia and Franconia.

The British fleets and troops took Martinique and the Havannah, in the West Indies, and Manilla, in the Philippine islands. Negotiations for peace had long been going on, and the definitive treaty was signed at Paris (Feb. 10.); and about the same time another at Hubertsburg, between the empress-queen and the king of Prussia.

A. D. 1763.

England obtained all Canada, and the islands of St. John and Cape Breton, great part of Louisiana, her conquests on the Senegal, the island of Grenada: all her other conquests she restored. Prussia and Austria agreed to place themselves on the footing they were on at the commencement of hostilities.

Thus ended the Seven Years' War—a war which had caused such an effusion of blood and treasure: it ended without being productive of any real advantage to any one of the parties.

Suppression of the Jesuits.

Europe now reposed from war. This period of tranquillity is marked by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits. This order was founded by a soldier, Ignatius Loyola, in the time of Charles V. Retaining his military ideas, Ignatius imposed on the members of his new order the strictest obedience; but his rules were simple and innocent. His successors, Lainez and Aquaviva, formed it into an institution which might vie with any of ancient or modern times. It speedily developed its powers;

the Jesuits became directors of the consciences of the great, and teachers of the young; they excelled in learning; they were the most zealous of missionaries. Forming a body, whose soul was the general of the order at Rome, they were the chief stay of papal power, and on them rested the remaining faint hopes of regaining spiritual dominion. But with all its great qualities and high aspirations, the order was fated to meet with no final success; the spirit of the age was against it; its assumptions were too high, its moral system too lax, its intrigues and movements too dark and complicated.

The marquis of Pombal, the Richelieu of Portugal, hated the order, which stood in his way: vile calumnies were forged against them, and they were expelled from Portugal. The example was followed by France, then by Spain, Naples, and finally by Austria. Their property was seized by the rapacious governments: Spain and Portugal, the most bigoted nations, were their most relentless persecutors. It was the expulsion of the Moriscoes on a minor scale. The unhappy fathers were forced on shipboard, and landed in the papal states. The good Clement XIII. remonstrated—he could do no more—in their favour: the excellent Clement XIV. yielded to the torrent, and suppressed the order. A. D. 1773.

First Partition of Poland.

An event now occurred which throws into the shade all that we have previously seen of injustice and aggression. The empress Catherine II., the northern Clytemnestra, had ascended the throne of her deposed and murdered husband, and had piously restored to the clergy their beards, pictures, and revenues, of which he had deprived them. Augustus III. king of Poland dying, the diet assembled at Warsaw to choose a successor proved a stormy one: the pacific empress considerately sent a body of troops thither to preserve the peace; and Stanislaus Poniatovsky, the candidate whom she favoured, was of course elected. He mounted the throne in tranquillity; but that state did not long endure. Animosities broke out between the 1762. 1764.

catholic party and that of the dissidents, who demanded an equality of rights: the latter were supported by the empress of Russia and the king of Prussia. Catherine fomented the disorders; her troops behaved with the greatest insolence; a civil war, and a war against the Russian intruders, agitated the unhappy country. At length the time seemed to be arrived for the execution of a project, first conceived by the royal philosopher of Sans Souci,—the tranquillising of Poland by its dismemberment. Religion excited some qualms in the mind of Maria Theresa; it was, however, forced to yield to the arguments of her *enlightened* son, Joseph. On the part of Catherine, no one looked for scruples.

The plunderers would act with some faint semblance of justice; some ridiculous old claims were therefore trumped up against Poland. The king and people appealed to justice; a weak appeal against Russian bayonets. All good men beheld with abhorrence the flagrant breach of divine and human laws, and the hypocrisy employed to veil it: the remaining powers of Europe were not in a condition to interfere. A third part of Poland was divided among the diademed robbers. A diet was called to sanction the dismemberment of their country; three foreign armies were at hand to prevent tumult: money and promises were distributed, and a majority of six votes in the senate, of one in the assembly of nuncios, sanctioned this detestable iniquity.

The ravished provinces were, perhaps, better under their new owners; for Frederic and Catherine were both wise sovereigns, and Joseph thought himself an adept in legislative wisdom; but eternal infamy will pursue their names, and the partition of Poland disgrace the eighteenth century of the Christian era.

Turkish War.

The affairs of Poland involved Russia in a war with Turkey. Large armies on both sides advanced towards
A. D. the Danube. The war commenced with the ravage of
1769. the frontiers. In the spring the standard of the prophet

was displayed. The Russians were driven by the vizier beyond the Dneister. The able vizier was recalled; his successor crossed the Dneister, and was defeated: Chotin and other fortresses were taken.

A. D.

A Russian fleet sailed round Europe, and appeared in 1770
the Grecian seas. The Turks had driven the Russians out of Moldavia and Wallachia; but the vizier was defeated near the mouth of the Pruth. Bender was stormed, after a siege of two months, and experienced Russian barbarity. The Greeks of the Morea rose at the call of Russia; the pasha of Bosnia entered it with 30,000 men; at Modon the hopes of Greece were crushed. The Turkish fleet was defeated at Epidaurus, and again defeated at Chios, and burnt at Chesmē. Syria and Egypt were in rebellion. The plague broke out at Yassy, and spread to Moscow, where 90,000 persons died of it.

The Russians broke into and seized the Crimea. The 1772
janizaries rose, murdered their aga, and set fire to their camp. Ali, the Egyptian pasha, fell in battle against his brother-in-law Mohammed, and his head was sent to Constantinople.

The Russians crossed the Danube: they were twice 1773
forced to raise the siege of Silistria, and they lost at Varna the greater part of their artillery. Hassan Pasha swore to the sultan to drive them over the Danube, and he performed his oath.

Mustafa III. died, and appointed his brother Abd- 1774
ul-Hamed to succeed, instead of his young son Selim. As no largesses were distributed, the janizaries would serve no longer. "Peace is necessary," said the mufti to the sultan, "since thy people will fight no more." Catherine was also anxious to end the war, and peace was concluded at Kainargi. The free navigation of the Black Sea and some territory were ceded to Russia.

American War.

Northern America had been chiefly colonised by the English; the settlements of the Dutch and French were

acquired by conquest. All these colonies were in the enjoyment of liberal and popular constitutions; the country was highly fertile, population rapidly increased, the energy and the boldness of youth animated the people, and crowds of colonists from Europe annually arrived on their shores. The mother country being oppressed by debt, a plan was devised to make the colo-
A. D. nies contribute to her relief, and a stamp-duty on various
1765. articles was imposed. The Americans remonstrated; a
1766. change took place in the ministry, and the act was repealed.

The spirit of oppression on the one hand, and of resistance on the other, still continued; and when the parliament imposed a duty on tea, the Americans refused to pay it, and at Boston the tea was flung into the sea. The British parliament passed bills for shutting up the port of Boston, and altering the constitution of Massa-
1774. chusets. The colonists called a congress at Philadelphia, and addressed a manly petition to the king. It was not received. The king and parliament in their wisdom, or rather in their pride, determined on what are called
1775. *strong measures*, and a civil war began.

At Lexington, in New England, a slight skirmish opened the war. At Bunker's Hill the first engagement was fought, general Gage having sent 2000 men to dislodge the provincials, who were erecting a battery there against Boston. General Montgomery entered Canada with a small force, to excite the Canadians to join the cause of liberty: they did not join him, and he fell in an attempt on Quebec.

1776. The American general Washington approached Boston; general Howe retired, and Washington entered the town in triumph. The Americans now issued their declaration of independence. They lost New York and New Jersey, and the congress was forced to take refuge in Maryland. New Jersey was soon recovered by Washington.

1777. Washington, with an inferior force, hazarded an engagement with sir W. Howe, near the river Brandy-

wine, and was defeated, with the loss of 1200 men. The English took Philadelphia, and routed with loss the republicans, who attacked them at German Town; but general Burgoyne, who, having reduced Ticonderoga, was advancing to join general Howe, was attacked at Saratoga by colonel Arnold: general Gates coming up with a considerable force, prepared to surround Burgoyne, who, after a fruitless attempt to force his way, was obliged to fall back on Saratoga, and there to capitulate. His troops, 3750 in number, were to be sent to England, and not to serve against the Americans till regularly exchanged.

A. D.

France had long been watching the progress of the 1778. contest. This last event decided her, and an alliance was formed with the infant republic. An indecisive engagement took place between the British and French fleets off Ushant. Sir Henry Clinton took the chief command in America: he forthwith abandoned Philadelphia, and retired to New York. An attempt on Rhode Island, by the American general Sullivan and the French admiral d'Estaine, proved a failure. Commissioners were sent out from England to treat with the Americans; but as the latter insisted on the recognition of their independence, nothing could be effected.

The jealousy of England, and the desire of humbling 1779. her, had made France join the Americans. The court of Spain, equally blind to consequences, followed her example. It was, in fact, as if two West India planters were to encourage the slaves of their neighbour to mutiny. The French admiral took St. Vincent and Grenada in the West Indies. The province of Georgia was reduced by the English.

Charles-town capitulated to general Clinton, and 1780. South Carolina was reduced. Washington was defeated at Camden by earl Cornwallis and lord Rawdon: the British were 2000, the Americans 5000. In this campaign occurred the defection of the American general Arnold, and the detection and execution of the British major André as a spy. Sir George Rodney defeated the

Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and thrice engaged, though not with decided success, the French fleet under count de Guichen.

The envy and jealousy of the continental powers now showed itself, by the armed neutrality they all, under the guidance of the *just* and *moderate* tsarina of Russia, entered into to resist the right of search and blockade claimed by England. The conduct of the Dutch was so faithless and sinister, that it was deemed necessary to declare war against them. The Dutch possessions in South America and the West Indies were seized, and they had little cause to congratulate themselves on their treachery to their ancient ally.

A. D. 1781. The Spaniards laid siege to Gibralter, which was gallantly defended; but Minorca was forced to surrender. Indecisive sea-actions were fought between sir Hyde Parker and the Dutch, and between sir S. Hood and the count de Grasse. The island of Tobago surrendered to the French.

The French admiral now resolved to assist the Americans with vigour. They had defeated colonel Tarleton at the Cow-pens in Carolina, and, though not victorious in their attack on Cornwallis at Guildford, had caused him considerable loss. But lord Rawdon routed them at Hobkirk, and col. Stuart repelled them at Eutaw. By his artifices Washington prevented Clinton sending any aid to earl Cornwallis in Virginia. The earl had taken his station at York-town on the York river, and had fortified it and Gloucester on the opposite bank. A powerful combined American and French army, under Washington, besieged them, and after some weeks Cornwallis proposed a capitulation. The troops, 6000 in number, were made prisoners of war; the ships became prizes to the French.

1782. The war in America was now ended. The British ministry was changed. The nation saw the folly of protracting a destructive and useless contest. Rodney had given the count de Grasse a complete defeat in the West Indies; general Elliot had repulsed all the efforts

of the French and Spaniards against Gibraltar; the British arms were successful in India. England could now make peace with honour. She acknowledged (Jan. 20.) the independence of her colonies, and Washington was chosen president of the new republic. A. D. 1783.

Of the injustice of this war on the part of England, few now have any doubt; but she only acted on the ordinary principles of human nature; and those powers who exclaimed against her tyranny and injustice would have acted, perhaps, worse had they been in her place. Well, indeed, would disapprobation come from the lips of a Catherine!

England's only loss were blood and treasure, for that of the colonies was none. She was also forced during this war to make a further sacrifice to justice, by acknowledging the independence of Ireland.

As during this period the English power greatly increased in India, we shall here take a short view of the affairs of the Europeans in that country.

India.

The conquests of the Portuguese in the East were amazingly rapid. At the time they fell under the yoke of Spain, they were all-powerful on the coasts of India, possessed the Moluccas, the coast of Ceylon, the isles of Sunda, and the trade of China and Japan. The Dutch used to purchase the products of the East at Lisbon, and distribute them over Europe. Philip II. having prohibited all intercourse with them as rebels, they made their way to India, and formed a settlement in Java, and an East India company was established. While Portugal was united with Spain, they made constant war on her in the East, and in a few years they left her nothing there but Goa. 1580. 1595.

The English appeared in India a few years after the Dutch. They also had formed a company. Their first settlements were in Java, Banda, Amboyna, and Poleron. The Dutch were jealous of them, and the rival companies carried on war against each other. A 1600.

A. D. treaty was concluded to arrange their differences; but
1623. the Dutch, regardless of it, barbarously massacred the English at Amboyna and other places, and expelled them from the Spice Islands. The supineness of James I., and afterwards the civil wars of England, prevented the nation attending to the East. Cromwell had a British spirit; the company throve in his time: Charles II. betrayed and oppressed it.

1664. The great Colbert had formed a French East India Company; their chief settlement was at Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coast. Thus the three greatest maritime powers were established in India, and the wars of Europe were now to be extended to that distant region.

1746. During the war of the succession, the French had taken the English settlement of Madras. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle it was restored. M. Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, formed a grand plan for gaining territory for the French India Company. Having a good body of troops under him, he, by their valour and his own intrigues, managed to have the candidate he sided with appointed subahdar of the Decan, and to get the nabobship of the Carnatic for Chunda Sahib, for whose life he was himself appointed nabob of that province. Dupleix aimed at obtaining all the country between Masulipatam, Goa, and Cape Comorin. Mohammed Ali, son of the late nabob of Arcot, implored the assistance of the English, who gave him some reinforce-

1751. ments, and several actions took place. In this war the famous Clive first appeared; with a small force he took Arcot, and when Chunda Sahib besieged it with a large army, he defended it with amazing talent and courage, and repelled the assailants. Reinforced by col. Kirkpatrick, he pursued and defeated the enemy on the plains of Arni. The rajah of Tanjore, and other princes, joined the English: Chunda and the French were several times defeated. Mohammed was acknowledged nabob of Arcot; the French lost the greater part of their acquisitions; and peace was about to be made, when a new war broke out in Europe.

The three rival companies had early established factories in Bengal; but the good policy of the Mogul government prevented their having any garrison or A. D. works of defence. On occasion of a rebellion of the 1696 rajahs west of the Hooglee, the factories augmented their soldiery and declared for the nabob, who gave them permission to put their settlements in a state of defence. The Dutch then fortified their factory at Hooglee, the French theirs at Chandernagore, and the English theirs of Fort William at Calcutta.

The English obtained some advantages from the court of Delhi, and increased their wealth and power. Suraj-ud-Dowlah, the subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, 1756. offended at their abuse of their privileges, and by their protecting a nobleman who had fled from his vengeance, suddenly marched with 50,000 men against Calcutta. After an ineffectual resistance, the governor and all but 200 of the garrison of Fort William escaped on shipboard. Mr. Holwell, who now took the command, soon saw himself and his unhappy companions immured by the cruel subahdar in the Black Hole, where nearly the whole perished. The affairs of the English in Bengal seemed now entirely ruined.

But the affairs of the company on the coast of Coro- 1757 mandel being now settled, admiral Watson took on board colonel Clive and some troops, and sailed for Calcutta. That town was recovered, Hooglee reduced, and the subahdar obliged to sue for peace. He agreed to restore every thing, and to allow the presidency to extend over thirty-eight neighbouring villages. The English now turned their arms against the French, and besieged and took Chandernagore. Clive aimed at farther humbling the subahdar, who was backward in fulfilling the treaty. In artifice, dissimulation, and what else is dignified with the name of policy, he was a full match for any Asiatic: he secretly gained Jaffier, the commander of the troops of the province, and he persuaded the subahdar to disband the forces he had collected at Plassy. Clive advanced to take that important post; but the

subahdar had reassembled his army, and occupied it. His forces were 50,000 foot, and 18,000 horse; those of Clive 1000 Europeans, and 2000 Sepoys; yet he ventured to give battle, and gained a victory. Jaffier was acknowledged by him subahdar. Suraj-ud-Dowlah was taken and put to death by order of the son of Jaffier; and the latter agreed to pay his allies the sum of 2,750,000 pounds sterling, and to enlarge their territory.

A. D.

1758. The war was carried on between the French and English in the Carnatic. Count Lally, the French commander, being largely reinforced from home, reduced Cudalore and Fort St. David. Next year he failed in an

1759. attempt on Madras. The British now took the field, and reduced Masulipatam and Conjeveram. Wandewash was reduced by colonel Coote, who defeated a strong army led by Lally to attempt its recovery. Surat was taken by an English force from Bombay; and the Dutch were well castigated in Bengal for their designs against the English in that quarter.

The English had deposed their ally Jaffier in Bengal (1760), and placed Cossim on the *musnud*. Their cupidity made them seize a pretext for making war on this prince: they deprived him of the whole province of Bengal, and Jaffier was again declared subahdar. The

1765. Great Mogul and the nabob of Oude in vain supported Cossim: they were obliged to sue for peace. In the Mysore a war was carried on, mostly to the advantage of the English, against Hyder Ali.

During the American war, the French lost all their settlements in India. The company carried on a vigorous war against Hyder Ali and the Mahrattas. Colonels

1778. Baillie and Fletcher were with their whole force taken or slain by Hyder and his son Tippoo; but sir Eyre

1781. Coote defeated them in several engagements. After the death of his father Tippoo continued the war.

The English had now an extensive empire in India. Much is it to be deplored that in the acquisition and management of it, the rights of humanity and justice

were so frequently trampled upon. It is an important enquiry what has been or is to be the advantage or evil to India and Britain from their close connection.

Persia.

A. D.

When the dynasty of Nadir had been extinguished in 1750.
Persia, the sovereignty of that country was contended for by the different rival chiefs, whose claims were all successively forced to yield to the power and the merit of Kerreem Khan, a chief of the native Persian tribe of Zend. The reign of this excellent prince, who occupied the throne twenty-six years, is a delightful object of contemplation amid the scenes of barbarity characteristic of eastern despotism. Justice, clemency, moderation, goodness of heart, distinguished all his actions. He lived and died happily amidst a grateful and contented people. 1779.

On the death of Kerreem Khan, his brothers and nephews contended for the vacant throne. After the usual series of atrocities attendant on such an event, the 1789.
power remained in the hands of Lootf Ali Khan, a youth of astonishing military talent and courage; but having behaved with ingratitude to the able and virtuous Hajee Ibrahim, governor of Sheeraz, to whom he was chiefly indebted for his throne, the latter, seeing that he had no security for his life but in depriving the king of the power to injure him, entered into a secret treaty with Aga Mohammed Khan, chief of the Kajirs, a Turkish tribe, settled in Mazenderan by Abbas the Great, who was now grown so powerful as openly to aspire to the empire. Lootf Ali Khan, after struggling for his crown with a heroism rarely paralleled, fell at length into the hands of his cruel rival, by whom he 1795.
was put to death, with every refinement of barbarity. This unhappy prince was but twenty-five years old. Aga Mohammed, who had been castrated in his childhood, was uncle to the present king of Persia; and by his vigour and cruelty he left the kingdom to his successor 1796.
in the state of obedience it has ever since maintained.

CHAP. VIII.

TIMES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND EMPIRE.

State of Europe.

LITERATURE now exerted a much more powerful influence over the public mind than it had done at any preceding period. A set of men, many of them of talents of the first order, arrogating to themselves the exclusive title of philosophers, and actuated at first, perhaps, by a zeal for truth, carried on an incessant warfare against all that they were pleased to designate as superstition and vulgar prejudice. But theirs was not that philosophy which, elevated above all low and groveling passions, and, irradiated by light from heaven, views with pity rather than contempt the aberrations of man, and seeks by mild and gentle methods to lead him into the way of truth. It was heartless, cold, and cheerless; its *summum bonum* was sensual indulgence or literary fame, and few of its professors displayed any real dignity of soul: its favourite weapon was ridicule; it attacked not alone the absurdities of the popular faith, but it levelled its shafts at the sublimest truths of religion; it shook the firmest bases of social order, and sought to rob man of all lofty hopes and aspirations. Every mode of composition, from the highest science and most serious history down to the lightest tale, was made the vehicle of this philosophy, with which was often joined a sickly, affected sensibility, calculated to gain it admittance even into the female bosom. The consequence was, as might be expected, a general laxity of principle.

The chief seat of this philosophy was France, where a court, corrupt and profligate beyond, perhaps, any which Europe had yet witnessed, had utterly degraded the minds of the upper classes of society. The efforts of the virtuous Louis XVI. to stem this torrent were un-

availing: national vice was not to escape its merited chastisement. The middle orders were disgusted and galled by the privileges of the *noblesse*, and their excessive pride and insolence; the writings of the philosophers, and the scandalous lives of many of the clergy, had shaken their reverence for religion; the abuses and oppression of arbitrary and extravagant government were keenly felt; the glorious struggle of the English for liberty in the last century, and the dignity and prosperity consequent on it, awaked the aspirations of the better disposed; the achievement of American independence filled the minds of many enthusiasts with vague ideas of freedom and happiness beneath republican institutions; and the lower orders in general looked forward to any change as a benefit.

It was a time of innovation, turmoil, and violent change. The English colonies had thrown off the bridle of the mother country, whom she curbed too straitly. The kingdom of Poland had been most nefariously dismembered. Gustavus III. of Sweden had overthrown the A. D.
aristocracy, and made himself absolute. A contest arose 1772.
in the United Provinces, between the party of the stadthouder and those who wished to make the government of a more republican form, which drew the attention of all the principal powers: the respective parties appealed to arms, and by Prussian aid the republicans were crushed. 1787
All these were but preludes to the storm which was soon to burst over Europe.

The East of Europe was meantime precipitated into 1787
war. The Turkish sultan, apprehensive of the designs of the tsarina and the emperor Joseph, declared war against Russia. The Turks commenced by the bombardment of Kilburn, on the Dneiper; but, while forming the trenches, they were attacked by Suvaroff, and nearly their whole force destroyed. Joseph now took part in the war, and opened it by a treacherous attempt on Belgrade: he entered the Turkish dominions at the head of a considerable force; but he reaped little military fame, and could only boast of the reduction of Choczim. 1788

The king of Sweden now entered into the war at the

instigation of the king of Prussia and the Porte, and severe naval conflicts took place in the Baltic; but several of Gustavus's officers refused obedience to him, and the Danes prepared to attack him on the side of Norway. A Russian flotilla, under the prince of Nassau Siegen, defeated Hassan, the capudan-pasha, off Oczakoff. In three other conflicts he was equally unfortunate. The siege of Oczakoff was formed by prince Potemkin: the town was taken by assault, and the inhabitants butchered
A. D. and pillaged by the soldiery.
1789. Abd-ul-hamed, dying suddenly, was succeeded by his nephew Selim III.; but success did not revisit the Ottoman arms. On the plains of Rimnik they failed before the Austrians and Russians, and Belgrade surrendered to the Austrian general Laudohn. But disease and chagrin at the resistance offered to his innovations in the Netherlands, and the discontents in Hungary,
1790. terminated the existence of Joseph; and his brother Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, who succeeded him, after some unsuccessful efforts, concluded an armistice with Selim.

On the part of the Russians, Ismael, a strong town in Bessarabia, was taken by assault by Suvaroff, during the very middle of winter. The ferocious warriors massacred in this assault fifty thousand Turks: their own loss was, according to their *veracious* commander, four thousand three hundred; according to others, fifteen thousand. In the Baltic, the Russian fleet was completely defeated by that of the Swedes, commanded by Gustavus in person; and preliminaries for a peace were soon afterwards agreed on. The war was carried on with vigour in Turkey: the Moslems were defeated at Maczin, and Bahada and the tsarina at length agreed that a congress should be held at Yassy to arrange the terms
1791. of a peace, which was concluded in the following year.

An attempt made by the patriotic portion of the Polish nation to regain their independence was crushed by the arms of the Russian despot, and the nation fell back into its former state of degradation.

Frederic II. of Prussia had died in 1786. Catherine survived him ten years, and lived to witness the horrors of the French revolution.

The French Revolution.

A. D.

The disordered state of the French finances induced 1787. the court, displeased with the parliament of Paris, to assemble the *Notables*, that is, persons selected from the privileged orders. This measure produced no advantage, and all classes called for a meeting of the states-general. This national council was at length convoked, 1789. and met at Versailles; but the commons were thought to assume so much power, and to encroach so on the other orders, that the king dismissed Necker, his minister of finance, and ordered some regiments to advance towards the capital. The populace, excited by the democrats, committed several outrages, and they took and demolished the fortress named the Bastile. The privileges of the nobility and clergy were soon abolished. The king was obliged to recall Necker, and to transfer the assembly to Paris, where the mob was at the devotion of the democrats. The property of the church was now transferred to the nation; the kingdom was divided into departments; change followed change without intermission; the king, for peace sake, assented to every thing; but commotion and bloodshed prevailed in different parts of the kingdom.

The power of the democrats still increased, and the 1790. famous Jacobin club was formed by them. Several of the nobility and of the royal family quitted France. A project being formed for the emperor and other powers to assist the king in the recovery of his authority, of which he was now nearly deprived, he and the royal 1791. family endeavoured to escape out of France; but they were stopped at Varennes, and forced to return to Paris. The Jacobin and Cordelier factions loudly demanded his death, and a violent riot took place in the Champ de Mars. A constitutional code was at this time completed.

Brissot, the leader of the Jacobins, procured a de- 1792.

claration of war against Austria, and La Fayette invaded the Netherlands, but he was unsuccessful. A Prussian army, under the duke of Brunswick, approached the French frontier; but the violent and silly manifesto he put forth served only to injure the cause it advocated. The Jacobins, urged on by their atrocious leaders, excited the populace; the king and royal family were put into confinement. Numbers of the nobility and others were murdered to prevent their joining the Prussians. Royalty was abolished. The Jacobins split into the Girondists, headed by Brissot and Roland, and the Jacobins, led by Robespierre, Danton, and Marat, three daring men whose bosoms knew not remorse. Disease and want of supplies forcing the Prussians and Austrians, who had nearly reached Paris, to retire, Dumouriez invaded the Netherlands, and, as the people were in his favour, speedily reduced them. Savoy was conquered, Germany invaded. The measure of Jacobin guilt was now nearly filled up:
A. D. they brought their amiable and unhappy king to trial,
1793. and judicially murdered him. This iniquitous act was followed by a declaration of war against the kings of England and Spain and the stadthouder of Holland.

Dumouriez invaded Holland, and reduced several towns; but he was defeated by the Austrians at Neer-Winden. The French arms were unfortunate also in Germany. Dumouriez formed a plan for restoring a king and constitutional government to France; but it being detected, he was forced to take refuge with the Austrians. An English army, under the duke of York, was now in Holland. Dampierre, Dumouriez's successor, was defeated and slain. The French lost almost all their conquests; their raw levies were cut to pieces; yet, under Hoche, they were again successful. The English failed in an attack on Dunkirk: the Austrians were driven within their own boundaries.

The French and Spaniards fought with various success at the Pyrenees. A savage civil war now broke out in the island of St. Domingo. At home, the Brissotine party was overthrown, and all the heads of it

executed: the infamous duke of Orleans also suffered the fate he had so long merited. The monsters now too shed the blood of the unhappy queen. A revolt having broken out in the south of France, it was quenched in blood; and the city of Lyons had a bitter experience of republican humanity. A war was carried on in La Vendée by the friends of royalty and religion; but fortune favoured the enemies of both. The English, aided by Spain and Naples, had taken possession of Toulon; they were forced, however, to abandon it. A. D.

The war in the Netherlands was carried on with 1794. great vigour: the French troops were commanded by Pichegru and Jourdan. After a variety of fortune, and the battle of Fleurus, gained by the latter, the tide ran in favour of the French, and the whole of the Netherlands were subdued. In Germany, Jourdan defeated Clairfait, and reduced Juliers and Cologne.

In France, the guillotine was pouring out blood in all quarters at the command of Robespierre and his ruthless associates; but at last justice awoke a little from her slumber, and the tyrant himself met the fate he more than deserved. Danton had already experienced it, and Marat had fallen by the hand of Charlotte Cordé.

Howe on the 1st of June defeated the French fleet. The Corsicans placed themselves under the king of England. But the French were victorious at the Pyrenees, and in Holland they met with uniform success. The middle ranks of the Dutch were in their favour; a revolution took place, and the people of the United Provinces, 1795. under the name of allies, became the subjects to France.

Europe, to the peace of Campo Formio.

While exclaiming against the horrors of the French 1792. revolution, the royal spoilers fell again on unhappy Poland, and tore away some more of her limbs. The Poles, led by the brave Kosciuszko, took arms, and made a brave resistance; but the defeat at Matchewitz broke their hopes, which finally expired when Warsaw was taken, and its garrison massacred by the ferocious Suva- 1795.

roff. A new division of plunder now took place. How rarely are uncontrolled power and a due sense of justice to be found in union!

Glutted with spoil, and now desirous of repose, the king of Prussia made a peace with France. In that country there had been a re-action, and the Jacobins were murdered and guillotined in their turn. The king of Spain was forced to seek for peace. In Germany there was some severe fighting between Jourdan and Clairfait. The Vendeans rose again, but were speedily crushed. Lord Bridport and admiral Cornwallis were successful against the French fleets. Most of the foreign possessions of the French and Dutch were reduced by the English. An insurrection broke out in Paris, but it was easily quelled. The constitution was now re-

A. D. modelled.

1796. Numerous conflicts took place in Germany; but the French, under Jourdan and Moreau, were unable to withstand the Austrians, commanded by the archduke Charles. The retreat of Moreau to the Rhine ranks as one of the most masterly in history.

Brilliant success attended the arms of the republic in Italy, under the young Bonaparte. The victories of Monte Notte and of Millesimo compelled the king of Sardinia to sue for peace, with loss of territory. The daring exploit of forcing the bridge of Lodi opened Lombardy to the French. The pope, the princes of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, were obliged to purchase safety by money, books, pictures, and statues. Mantua was besieged: the Austrians, who had been reinforced, approaching to its relief, were defeated at Lonato and Castiglione, and Mantua was reinvested. The Trans and Cis-Padane republics were at this time erected. The English were deprived of Corsica. Spain was now at length induced to join in the war against England, and a mutiny which broke out in the navy of the latter power seemed to threaten her existence.

1797. Every attempt was made to relieve Mantua, and several actions were fought. At Rivoli the Austrians,

under Alvinzi, struggled in vain with the utmost heroism, and Mantua was at length obliged to capitulate. The territories of the pope were next overrun, and he was forced to surrender the greater part of them, and pay large sums of money. Bonaparte then led his army northwards, resolved to invade the hereditary dominions of the emperor. He overran Carinthia and part of Styria, Carniola, and Istria; but by the desire of the directory, who now governed France, he made proposals of peace, and articles were signed at Leoben.

Venice now was to be favoured with a new constitution by the French empirics. The vile oligarchy who ruled it were paralysed with terror: while they negotiated, French troops seized all their towns, and Venice, after an independent existence of more than 1000 years, submitted, without striking a blow, to be blotted out of the list of nations; and who will deplore the fate of an oligarchy of whom history records hardly a single noble or generous action? Genoa, a name dearer to liberty, underwent a similar fate, and became the Ligurian republic.

Peace was at length concluded at Campo Formio. Austria got Venice and the greater part of her territory; but she lost the Netherlands and her Italian dominions. The Ionian islands fell to France.

Affairs to the assumption of the chief power by Bonaparte.

A. D.
1798. Rome was pillaged, and a republic erected there. The machinations of the French produced a revolution in Switzerland, and that republic was united to France. Some of the cantons refused submission: they fought with the valour of patriots, but they were constrained to yield to superior power.

Malta was now treacherously assailed and taken by Bonaparte, on his way to Egypt, whither, with their usual regard to good faith and justice, the directory had sent him. He landed near Alexandria, stormed that town, and massacred the inhabitants. The Mamelukes were routed at Embaba, and Cairo submitted. Mean-

while the English admiral Nelson destroyed (Aug. 1) the French fleet at Aboukir.

A rebellion broke out in Ireland; but after a short struggle, the insurgents, not being aided by France, were forced to submit. The tsar now took share in the war, and the emperor of Austria and the king of Naples also prepared to engage in it.

A. D. 1799. The Neapolitan troops invaded the Roman territory, but were driven back. The French advanced; the king fled to Palermo; Capua surrendered. The peasantry and populace of Naples fought, but in vain, in defence of their country. Naples was entered.

The French were anxious to obtain possession of the Grison country. At Ostrach and Stockach, Jourdan was defeated by the archduke Charles. A Russian army under Suvaroff entered Italy, and in union with the Austrians defeated the French at Cassano, and drove them to Milan and Genoa. Alexandria was taken, and the French, under Joubert and Moreau, were routed at Novi. Suvaroff marched into Switzerland, where there had been some severe fighting. Korsakoff had led another Russian army into that country. Massena, the French commander, attacked and defeated this last officer, and Zurich was taken by storm. The Austrians in Italy reduced Coni, and invested Genoa.

Bonaparte having reduced Egypt, turned his thoughts to Syria. General Regnier, with 12,000 men, was sent towards that country, ruled over by the sanguinary Jezzar, who was aided by sir Sidney Smith, and some troops of the Porte. At Al-Arish Regnier defeated a body of Mamelukes. Bonaparte soon joined the army: Al-Arish and Gaza surrendered: Jaffa was taken by storm. Acre was, as of old, gallantly defended by a Christian hero, sir Sidney Smith, and Bonaparte was obliged to raise the siege, and return to Egypt. Desaix had been there engaged against the Mamelukes in Upper Egypt, and had driven them beyond the Cataracts.

A Turkish army under the vizier having landed in

Egypt, and taken Aboukir, Bonaparte attacked and defeated them, and recovered the fort. Soon afterwards, seeing that nothing more was to be gained in Egypt, he secretly returned to France, leaving the command to Kleber, who defeated a Turkish division; but his troops being in want of every thing, he signed a convention with the vizier to quit the country. Lord Keith declared it should not be executed, and Kleber again attacked and defeated the Turks.

The English, Austrians, and Neapolitans recovered the papal territories. The English and Russians landed in Holland; but after obtaining some advantages over general Vandamme, they were obliged to negotiate a retreat.

The joy of the directory at this success was damped by the appearance of Bonaparte. A revolution in the government was effected; it was made consular, and Bonaparte was chosen first consul, with Cambacères and Le Brun for his colleagues.

Affairs till the peace of Amiens.

A. D. 1800. Bonaparte, anxious to consolidate his power, made pacific overtures to England, which were rejected: the minister and the nation were bent on war. The long-sought union with Ireland was happily effected in the beginning of this year.

The first consul resolved to prosecute the war with vigour. He joined the army assembled at Geneva, crossed Mont St. Bernard, and descended into Italy. The country to the Po was speedily subdued, and that river passed. Genoa had surrendered to the Austrians. The Austrian general Melas was defeated at Montebello. On the plains of Marengo, between Alessandria and Tortona, the armies fought (June 14.) again: victory seemed ready to declare for the Austrians, when the arrival of the divisions of Monnier and Desaix turned the fortune of the day, and gave the first consul the glory of a conqueror. A truce, and the surrender of Genoa and other strong places, were the immediate results.

In Germany, Moreau penetrated into Bavaria: a negotiation was ineffectually entered into; the war recommenced, and the defeat of Hohenlinden (Dec. 3) led to the treaty of Luneville, by which Francis gave up more territory in Germany, and consented to the transfer of Tuscany to the duke of Parma.

A. D. 1801. The fickle tsar Paul had been gained over by the French. He detained the ships of the English, and prevailed on Denmark and Sweden to engage in an armed neutrality. The English, who considered their existence to depend on their maritime superiority, sent a large fleet to the Baltic, under sir Hyde Parker, to break up the confederacy. The Danes were first attacked; lord Nelson destroyed their line of defence before Copenhagen, and they sued for peace: the king of Sweden agreed to treat. The tsar Paul was murdered by conspirators, and his son Alexander was inclined to England. The king of Prussia, who had seized on Hanover, now declared himself ready to renew his amity with Great Britain.

An English army, under sir Ralph Abercrombie, had arrived in Egypt. Immediately on its landing a battle ensued, which the English gained with the loss of their general. Grand Cairo surrendered. Its example was followed by Alexandria, and the French agreed to evacuate the country.

1802. Peace was signed at Amiens. The English consented to give up all their conquests but Ceylon and Trinidad; the Ionian islands were to form a republic; Malta to be restored to the knights.

Affairs of Europe to the treaty of Tilsit.

Bonaparte was now declared chief consul for life. He restored the catholic religion, and gave new constitutions to France, Genoa, and Switzerland. A force was sent to St. Domingo, where Toussaint l'Ouverture, a negro, had erected a republic. That chief was treacherously seized and sent to France; but the French were unable fully to recover the island.

A. D.

Disputes arising respecting the fulfilment of the treaty 1803.
of Amiens, the war was resumed. Hanover was invaded and reduced by the French; Holland was dragged into the war, and immediately lost her colonies. In St. Domingo the French power was finally overthrown, and 1804.
Dessalines made chief of the republic.

Bonaparte at length ventured to assume the imperial dignity, and the princes of Europe mostly acknowledged their new associate, who insulted and domineered over the greater part of the continent.

The following year, after bestowing a new constitu- 1805.
tion on Holland, Napoleon made himself king of Italy, adding the Ligurian republic to his kingdom. This last act of injustice induced the emperors of Austria and Russia to enter into a confederacy with Great Britain, and the glorious victory gained by Nelson off Trafalgar (Oct. 21) over the combined fleets of France and Spain, gave spirits to the allies; but the French poured over the Rhine, and drove back the Austrians. At Ulm 20,000 Austrians surrendered. Vienna was entered by Napoleon: the Austrians and Russians were completely defeated at Austerlitz (Dec. 2.) Francis lost courage, and concluded a treaty at Presburg, by which he gave up more territory, including Venice, acknowledged the king of Italy and two new kings, namely, those of Bavaria and Würtemburg.

The French invaded Naples, and Joseph Bonaparte was seated on the throne of that country. A victory was gained at Maida (July 4) by the English, and the Calabrians rose; but the power of the usurper was too great for resistance. Holland was also made a kingdom for Louis Bonaparte. At the command of Napoleon, his two new German kings, and some other princes, detached themselves from the Germanic body, and formed the confederacy of the Rhine, in alliance with France. The king of Prussia, who had been encouraged to seize Hanover, finding that in some late negotiations between France and England its restoration had been offered, and otherwise disgusted with his friend the emperor, rushed

precipitately into a war: he imprudently gave the chief command to the duke of Brunswick. The French advanced with rapidity. A Prussian army of 6000 men was defeated at Saalfeld. Near Jena and Auerstadt (Oct. 14) the Prussian and Saxon army of 110,000 men was attacked by that of the French of 150,000, and defeated. Erfurt was taken; prince Hohenlohe and his army surrendered at Prentzlau: Berlin was entered. The king of Holland conquered to the Weser: Jerome Bonaparte subdued Silesia: general Blücher and 9400 men capitulated at Ratkau: the Poles were excited to rise. The Russians, who were now advancing, met and defeated the French at Pultusk, and repulsed them at Golomyn. At Berlin, Bonaparte declared the British isles in a state of blockade, and, by what he called the continental system, prohibited all intercourse with them.

A. D. 1807. The Turks now shared in the war. The Russian emperor foolishly quarrelled with the Porte, and overran its northern provinces. An English fleet fruitlessly menaced Constantinople, and an ineffectual attempt was made on Egypt.

The war was renewed in the north, and a desperate but indecisive battle was fought at Prussian Eylau; Dantzig was taken by Lefévre. The allies sustained a defeat at Friedland (June 14), which was followed by the capture of Königsberg, and the treaty of Tilsit, which deprived the king of Prussia of one third of his dominions, and erected the kingdom of Westphalia for Jerome Bonaparte.

Affairs to the treaty of Vienna.

An expedition, little creditable to England, was sent out against Denmark, a power with whom she was at peace. Copenhagen was bombarded, and all the ships and naval stores carried away. A rupture ensued between Russia and England.

1808. The demands made by France on the regent of Portugal were so unjust, that that prince, at the desire of

the British cabinet, departed for the Brazils. Portugal was occupied by the French. Intrigues were set on foot in Spain; the king, Charles IV., resigned in favour of his son Ferdinand. The royal family were decoyed to Bayonne; both father and son were terrified into abdication, and the crown transferred to Joseph Bonaparte. Large bodies of troops had already been sent into Spain, and no opposition was dreaded; but the people rose in all quarters, and proclaimed Ferdinand VII.: the French fleet at Cadiz was obliged to surrender, as also the army of Dupont at Baylen. Saragossa was heroically defended against the troops of Joseph, who at length raised the siege. A. D. 1808.

The Portuguese rose also against the French. A British army landed and defeated the French general Junot at Vimiero (Aug. 21.). By a convention made at Cintra, the French evacuated that kingdom. A Russian fleet was taken in the Tagus.

In the north of Europe, Sweden was hard pressed by the Russians and Danes. The conduct of Gustavus bordering on insanity, he was the next year dethroned, and his uncle made king in his place.

The French were victorious in Spain, defeating Blake at Reynosa, and Castanos at Tudela. Napoleon arrived, and Madrid was taken. An English army, under sir John Moore, had advanced as far as Salamanca; but it was forced to retreat. At Corunna it was attacked (Jan. 16.), and general Moore mortally wounded. 1809.

Encouraged by the resistance made by the Spaniards, the emperor of Austria resolved anew on war: it commenced in Bavaria. Napoleon having driven back the Austrians at Eckmuhl, advanced rapidly and occupied Vienna. At Aspern and Essling, after dreadful slaughter on both sides, the victory remained with the Austrians. The battle of Wagram terminated in favour of the French.

A most ill-conceived project of creating a diversion in Holland was formed by the British cabinet. An army of 39,000 men, under the earl of Cathcart, sailed to

Walcheren, and took Middleburg and Flushing; but a large force being collected at Antwerp, and a fever breaking out among the troops, nothing further could be effected by such a waste of lives and treasure.

The emperor Francis was now constrained to make peace, with additional loss of territory. In the preceding year, Selim III. had been murdered, and Mahmood, the present sultan, was seated on the Turkish throne. Peace was concluded between England and the Porte.

Progress of the Peninsular War.

The French were now masters of Spain to Old Castile. Saragossa had stood a second siege with less success than formerly, 20,000 of its defenders being said to have perished. Marshal Soult entered Portugal, and took Oporto. Sir A. Wellesley advanced against him, and drove him back into Spain. The Spaniards defeated marshal Ney at San Payo in Gallicia. Sir A. Wellesley entered Spain and defeated the French at Talavera de la Reyna (July 28); but the enemy being reinforced, and the co-operation of the Spaniards not to be depended on, he fell back. Gerona was taken by the French, after a gallant defence. One Spanish army was defeated at Ocana, and another at Alba de Tormes.

A. D. 1810. An army of 30,000 Portuguese was raised and paid by the British government. The French army approached Portugal, took Astorga and Ciudad Rodrigo, and, under Massena, passed the frontier and reduced Almeida. At the pass of Busaco they were repelled. A fortified line was made from the Tagus to the ocean, behind which the allies were posted. Massena feared to assail it: after a month's inaction he fell back to Santarem.

In the south Seville was taken by the French; but Cadiz, now the seat of government, was secured against them.

1811. Massena at length commenced his retreat, closely followed by the allies. A sharp action occurred at Fuentes d' Honor, after which Almeida surrendered. Badajoz

having been captured by Mortier, sir W. Beresford laid siege to it. Soult advancing with 23,000 men to its relief, the combined armies of 26,000 gave him battle at the Albuera (May 16), and gained the honour of the day. The siege was resumed by sir A. Wellesley, now lord Wellington; but on the approach of Soult and Marmont he retired across the Tagus. In Andalusia the French were defeated at Barrosa by general Graham. They had the advantage in the north of Spain, and Tarragona, Murviedro, and Valencia fell into their hands.

The revolution commenced this year in South America. A. D.

A change having taken place in the government of 1812. Spain, the war was resumed with spirit. Lord Wellington reduced Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz. Salamanca also fell, and a decisive victory was gained (July 22) over Marmont in its vicinity. Madrid, Seville, Valladolid, were recovered; the French raised the siege of Cadiz; but lord Wellington failed in an attack on Burgos.

The Invasion of Russia, and fall of Napoleon.

Alexander was mortified at the condition to which he 1812. was reduced, and he defied Napoleon. The latter formed the bold project of invading Russia: an immense army was assembled; Lithuania was occupied; Napoleon advanced to Smolensk; Oudinot and Macdonald were directed to join, and to get between the great Russian army and St. Petersburgh. The former was opposed by Wittgenstein at Polotsk; prince Bagration engaged Davoust at Mohiloff; Wittgenstein checked the corps of Oudinot a second time at Polotsk.

Smolensk was abandoned to the enemy. At Borodino (Sept. 7.) a general battle was fought, and the French repulsed with a loss of 30,000 men; but Napoleon being reinforced, pushed on for Moscow, and Kutusoff, the Russian commander, not feeling himself strong enough to contend with him; he reached that city, but found it in flames. Thus disappointed of supplies, he offered in vain to treat. He then commenced his retreat. It was

mid-winter; the sufferings of the army were dreadful. The Russians closely pursued; and of the immense host which had entered Russia, not more than 30,000, exclusive of the Austrians, passed the frontiers. The dead and prisoners exceeded 400,000 in number.

Alexander had already concluded a league with Sweden, whose councils were directed by the French marshal Bernadotte, who had been chosen crown-prince. He now roused the king of Prussia to resistance. A treaty
A. D. was formed between them. The combined armies fought
1813. the new levies of Napoleon at Lützen; the action was indecisive, and they were repulsed at Bautzen. A truce was made; during its continuance the emperor of Austria joined the alliance, as did Sweden now openly.

The allied army of 180,000 men was commanded by the Austrian prince Schwarzenburg. The battle of Katzbach, gained by the Prussian general Blücher, delivered Silesia. An indecisive action took place at Dresden: Vandamme was defeated at Culm, and Ney at Juterbock. Napoleon concentrated his forces at Leipzig, where (October 18.) the allies attacked and totally defeated him. The city was taken: the king of Bavaria joined the league; and his troops, combined with the Austrians, defeated, at Hanau, the French as they were retreating from Leipzig. Holland now flung off the yoke, and recalled the prince of Orange. At Frankfort the allied monarchs put forth a declaration of the justice and moderation of their views.

1813. In Spain, lord Wellington being reinforced, and now well supported by the Spaniards, crossed the Douro, and marched northwards. At Vittoria (June 21.) he engaged and totally defeated the French army, commanded by marshal Jourdan. Pampeluna was blockaded; St. Sebastian besieged; marshal Soult in vain endeavoured to check their progress. St. Sebastian fell, and the allies entered France.

1814. France was now invaded north and south. The armies from Germany met little check. Murat, the king of Naples, abandoned Napoleon. The allies ap-

peared before Paris, and that haughty capital capitulated. In the south the allied arms were still crowned with success; and Bordeaux proclaimed Louis XVIII.

Napoleon was obliged to sign an act of abdication; and the island of Elba, with a sufficient income, was assigned him for his residence. Louis XVIII. was restored; as were the pope, and the other sovereigns who had been deprived of their dominions. All Europe was now at peace.

A. D.

While Napoleon was in the zenith of his power, and 1812. England was straining every nerve in the cause of justice in Spain, Mr. Madison, the president of the United States, urged, perhaps, by that love of conquest which beats as strong in the bosom of the chief of a democracy as in that of the despot, deemed the occasion good for illustrating his reign, by adding to what was already too extensive, and stripping England of a part of her colonies. War was accordingly declared, under pretext of the British orders in council, issued in consequence of the Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon, and Canada was immediately invaded. The invaders were speedily driven back by an inferior force: at sea the republican arms were more successful, and their frigates captured some British frigates of inferior size and strength. The following year was spent chiefly in conflicts on the lakes and their vicinity. At length, a portion of lord Wel- 1814. lington's army was sent to America: the city of Washington was taken. A treaty was, at the end of the year, concluded at Ghent.

While a congress was engaged in arranging the affairs 1815. of Europe, news arrived that Napoleon had left Elba, and landed in France. He was received every where with enthusiasm by the army, and Louis was obliged to quit France, and to seek a refuge in the Netherlands. The allied princes issued a strong manifesto, and large armies were assembled to oppose the usurper. Some partial advantages attended his first operations; but on the field of Waterloo (June 18.) his last battle was

fought. The genius of Wellington and the steadiness of the British troops were triumphant. After a brief reign of 100 days, he fled to the sea coast, where he surrendered himself to a British naval commander: and six years afterwards, he who had lorded it over the nations expired a captive on a rock of the Atlantic. Louis XVIII. was reconducted to his capital by the allied armies, and again seated on his throne; and the convulsions which had agitated Europe for a quarter of a century at length terminated.

After the destruction of the power of Napoleon, the allied sovereigns undertook to remodel different parts of Europe, and they proceeded to their object with what they deemed expediency in view, but with too little regard to popular feelings or to national and hereditary rights. Denmark was forced to yield Norway to Sweden, and take in exchange Rügen and Pomerania; and then to give these to Prussia for Lauenburg. Prussia, always grasping, received a large portion of the dominions of the king of Saxony, who had been guilty of the crime of fidelity to Napoleon. Austria extended her sway, now odious to the people, over the north of Italy. Genoa was forced to submit to become a part of the dominions of the king of Sardinia. The Netherlands and the United Provinces were formed into a kingdom for the prince of Orange: a large part of Poland composed one for the emperor of Russia. A new confederation for mutual defence, and the prevention of internal war, was entered into by the sovereign states of Germany, who promised representative constitutions to their subjects,—a promise which but few of them have kept. England, the choragus of the great drama which was now concluded, who had shed her blood, and lavished her treasure so unsparingly, remained covered with glory, but deeply immersed in debt. She had, during this period, extended her dominion over nearly the whole peninsula of India; and the realms, once ruled by the house of Timoor, now bow beneath her commercial sceptre.

At this momentous era in the history of the world we terminate our rapid view of its destinies. We have seen empire after empire rise and fall; each has had its appointed limit: what has been gained by injustice and violence, has been lost by corruption and imbecility. The agency of a great moral superintending power is every where perceptible; the slow but sure castigation of national vice every where meets our view; but man will not learn wisdom; and the latest periods of history present the same scenes of unblushing violations of faith and justice, which occurred ere he had received the lessons of experience. Like children at their play, nations and princes still go on adding story after story to the political house of cards, fondly hoping that the slight foundation will support, and the loose juncture hold together the towering edifice, till in an instant it falls, levelled by its own weight, and the scattered fragments remain for another equally wise architect to attempt its reconstruction. Occasional war seems to be necessary to the healthy existence of states; and war may lead to conquest; but the voice of history cries aloud, that empire founded on injustice and aggression is rarely lasting.

With a general resemblance to the others, each period of history has its own peculiar features. What chiefly distinguishes Modern History are the increased intercourse and connexion of nations, and the growth of liberty. The civilised world now forms one body: collision in one part communicates motion to the whole; a spark of discord, when struck, is apt to kindle a conflagration; while, on the other hand, the progress of improvement is facilitated, and the discoveries and the knowledge of one people are speedily appropriated by another. But the glory of modern times is the progress of liberty: our last division has presented many a hard-fought contest in its sacred cause; and we may now say with truth, that there never was a time when so large a portion of mankind was in possession of civil, religious, and mental liberty. Even the nations which have not been yet cheered by the beams of political freedom are

benefited by its proximity; and public opinion, to which it has given birth, tends to restrain the excesses of absolute power. In the south of Europe, as if for a warning to others to shun the evil, civil and religious despotism are still suffered by Providence to display their hideous forms; but in the New World, the incipient and chaotic state of freedom is travailing in the birth of a purer and more regular order of things. The "march sublime" of liberty is, we trust, not to be retarded for ages to come. England has led the way in the glorious career: and the last blemish which stained her fair fame, and afforded a topic of reproach to her enemies, has been removed, while her councils were directed by the warrior who so often had led her armies to victory. *Esto perpetua.*

TABULAR VIEW

OF

ROYAL DYNASTIES.

ISRAEL.	B.C.
Saul	1095
David and Ishbosheth	1055
David sole king	1048
Solomon	1015

JUDAH.	B.C.	ISRAEL.	B.C.
Rehoboam	975	Jeroboam I.	975
Abia	958	Nadab	954
Asa	955	Baasa	953
Jehosaphat	914	Ela	930
Joram	889	Zimri	929
Ahaziah	885	Ahab	918

JUDAH.	B.C.	ISRAEL.	B.C.
Athaliah	884	Ahaziah	897
Joash	878	Joram	896
Amaziah	838	Jehu	884
Uzziah or Azariah	809	Jehoahaz	856
Jotham	757	Joash	839
Ahaz	741	Jeroboam II.	823
Hezekiah	726	Zachariah	771
Manasses	697	Menahem	770
Amon	642	Pekaiah	760
Josiah	640	Pekah	758
Jehoakaz	608	Hoshea	729
Jehoiakim		Samariah	721
Zedekiah	597		

PERSIA, KINGS OF.	B.C.
Cyrus	559
Cambyses	529
Smerdis Magus	522
Darius I. son of Hystaspes	521
Xerxes I.	485
Artaxerxes I.	464
Xerxes II.	425
Sogdianus	424
Darius II. Nothus	423
Artaxerxes II.	404
Artaxerxes III.	358
Arses or Arogus	337
Darius III. Codomanus	335
Under the Greeks and Parthians from 331 B.C. to 226 A.D.	

Sassanian Dynasty.	A.D.
Ardisheer Babigan, called by the Romans Artaxerxes	226
Shahpoor I.	240
Hoormuz I.	271
Baharam I.	272
Baharam II.	276
Baharam III.	293
Narsi	293
Hoormuz II.	303
Shapoor II.	310
Ardisheer II.	381
Shahpoor III.	385
Baharam IV.	390
Yezdéjird-Ulathim	404
Baharam V.	420
Yezdéjird II.	438
Firoze	458
Pallas	484
Kobad	488
Noosheerwan	531
Hoormuz III.	579
Baharam-Choubeen	590
Khoosroo Purveez	591
Sheruyeh	628
Shah-Sherrendeh	631
Arzem-dokht	632
Yezdéjird III.	632

MODERN PERSIA.	
Suffavean Dynasty.	
Shah Ismaïl	1504
Tamasp	1523
Ismail II.	1576
Mohammed Meerza	1577
Abbas the Great	1582
Sâm Meerza, or Shah Suffee	1627
Abbas II.	1641
Suffee Meerza, or Shah Suleimân	1666
Hoossein	1694
Mahmood (the Afighan)	1722
Ashraff (the Afghan)	1725
Tamasp II. son of Hoossein	1729
Nadir Shah	1732
Adil Shah	1747
Interregnum	1750
Kerreem Khan	1753
Interregnum	1779
Lootf Ali Khan	1789
Aga Mohammed	1795
Futteh Ali Khan (the present king)	1796

MACEDON, KINGS OF.	B.C.
Philip, son of Amyntas	360
Alexander the Great	336
Philip Aridæus	323
Cassander	316
Antipater	296
Alexander	
Demetrius	294

	B.C.
Pyrrhus	288
State of anarchy.	
Antigonus I. Gonatus	278
Demetrius II.	239
Antigonus II. Doson	229
Philip	220
Perseus	179

PERGAMUS, KINGS OF.

Philetærus	283
Eumenes I.	263
Attalus I.	241
Eumenes II.	197
Attalus II. Philadelphus	159
Attalus III. Philometor	138

SYRIA, KINGS OF.

Seleucus Nicator	312
Antiochus I. Soter	280
Antiochus II. Theos	261
Seleucus II. Callinicus	246
Seleucus III. Ceraunus	226
Antiochus III. the Great	223
Seleucus IV. Philopater	187
Antiochus IV.	175
Antiochus V.	164
Demetrius I. Soter	162
Alexander Balas	150
Demetrius II. Nicator	146
Antiochus VI.	144
Diodotus	143
Antiochus VII.	139
Demetrius II. restoration of	130
Alexander Zebina	127
Antiochus VIII.	123
Philip and Demetrius	93
Tigranes, king of Armenia	83
Antiochus IX. Asiaticus	69

EGYPT, KINGS OF.

	B.C.
Ptolemy I.	323
Ptolemy II. Philadelphus	284
Ptolemy III. Evergetes	246
Ptolemy IV. Philopater	221
Ptolemy V. Epiphanes	204
Ptolemy VI. Philometor	180
Ptolemy VII. Physcon	145
Ptolemy VIII. Lathyrus	116
Cleopatra	
Alexander	106
Cleopatra	
Ptolemy Lathyrus, restoration of	88
Cleopatra II.	81
Alexander II.	
Ptolemy Alexander III.	80
Ptolemy Dionysius Auletes	65
Ptolemy Dionysius II.	51
Cleopatra III.	

JUDEA, KINGS OF.

	B.C.
Hyrcanus I. (High Priest)	136
Aristobulus I.	105
Alexander Jannai	104
Alexandra	78
Hyrcanus II. and Aristobulus II.	69
Hyrcanus II.	63
Antigonus	40
Herodes the Great	37
Archelaus	3
	A.D.
Judea, a Roman province	8
Agrippa	37

ROME, KINGS OF.

	B.C.
Romulus	753
Numa Pompilius	715
Tullus Hostilius	672
Ancus Martius	640
Tarquinius Priscus	616
Servius Tullius	578
Tarquinius Superbus	534
Republic for 461 years.	

EMPERORS.

	A.D.
Augustus	31
Tiberius	14
Caligula	37
Claudius	41
Nero	54
Galba	68
Otho	
Vitellius	69
Vespasian	
Titus	79
Domitian	81
Nerva	96
Trajan	98
Adrian	117
Antoninus Pius	138
Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus	161
Commodus	180
Pertinax and Julianus	193
Septimius Severus	193
Caracalla and Geta	211
Opilius Macrinus	217
Elagabalus Antonius	218
Alexander Severus	222
Maximinus	235
The two Gordians	236
Maximus, Pupienus, and Balbinus	237
Gordian junior	238
Philip the Arabian	244
Decius	249
Gallus, Hostilianus	251
Volusianus	
Æmilianus Valerianus and Gallienus	254
Gallienus alone	260
Claudius	268
Aurelian	270
Tacitus	275
Florianus	
Probus	276
Marcus Aurelius Carus	282
Diocletian	284
Diocletian and Maximianus	286
Constantius Chlorus Galerius Maximianus	304
Constantine I. the Great	306
Constantine II. Con-	

	B.C.
stans, and Constantius	337
Julian	361
Jovian	363
Valentinian I. and Valens	364
Gratian, Valentinian II. and Theodosius I.	375
Honorius	395
Valentinian III.	424
Maximus	455
Avitus	456
Majorianus	457
Severus	461
Anthemius	467
Olybrius	472
Glycerius	473
Julius Nepos	474
Romulus Augustus	475

Bishops of Rome.

	A.D.
St. Linus	67
St. Cletus, or Anacletus	78
St. Clement I.	91
Evaristus	100
Alexander I.	108
Sixtus I.	116
Telesphorus	126
Hyginus	137
Pius I.	141
Anicetus	157
Soter	168
Eleutherus	177
Victor	192
Zephirinus	201
Callixtus	219
Urban I.	224
Pontianus	231
Anterius Fabianus	235
Cornelius	251
Lucius	253
Stephen	255
Sixtus II.	257
Dionysius	259
Felix I.	271
Eutychianus	275
Caius	283
Marcellinus	296
Marcellus	304
Eusebius	309
Melchiades	311
Silvester	314
Marcus	336
Julius	337
Liberius	352
Damasus	367
Siricius	385
Anastatius	398
Innocent I.	402
Zosimus	417
Boniface I.	418
Cœlestinus	423
Sixtus III.	432
Leo the Saint	440
Hilary	461
Simplicius	467
Felix II.	483
Gelasius	492
Anastatius	496
Symmachus	498
Hormisdas	514
John I.	523
Felix III.	526
Boniface II.	530
John II.	532
Agapetus	535
Sylverius	536
Vigilius	540
Pelagius I.	556
John III.	569
Benedict	573
Pelagius II.	577
Gregory the Great	590

Popes.

Sabinianus	604
Boniface III.	606
Boniface IV.	607
Deusdedit	614
Boniface V.	617
Honorius I.	626
Sevirinus	639
John	639
Theodorus	641
Martin I.	649
Eugenius	655
Vitatianus	655
Adeodatus	669
Domnus	676
Agathon	678
Leo II.	683
Benedict II.	684
John V.	685
Conon	686
Sergius	687
John VI.	701
John VII.	705
Sinsinius I. Constantine	708
Gregory II.	714
Gregory III.	731
Zachary	741
Stephen II. and III.	752
Paul I.	757
Stephen IV.	768
Adrian I.	772
Leo III.	795
Stephen V.	816
Pascal I.	817
Eugenius II.	824
Valentin	827
Gregory IV.	827
Sergius II.	844
Leo IV.	847
Pope Joan, according to some Benedict III.	854
Nicholas I.	858
Adrian II.	867
John VIII.	872
Martin II.	882
Adrian III.	884
Stephen VI.	885
Formosus	891
Boniface VI.	897
Stephen VII.	
Theodorus II.	901
John IX.	
Benedict IV.	905
Leo V.	906
Christopher	
Sergius III.	907
Anastatius III.	910
Lando	912
John X.	913
Leo VI.	928
Stephen VIII.	929
John XI.	931
Leo VII.	936
Stephen IX.	939
Martin III.	943
Agapetus II.	946
John XII.	955
Leo VIII.	963
Benedict VI	964
John XIII.	965
Domnus II.	972
Benedict VI.	
Boniface VII.	974
Benedict VII.	975
John XIV.	984
John XV.	985
Gregory V.	996
Silvester II.	999
John XVI.	1003
John XVII.	
Sergius IV.	1009
Benedict VIII.	1012
John XVIII.	1024
Benedict IX.	1034
Gregory VI.	1044
Clement	1046
Damasus II.	1048
Leo IX.	1049
Victor II.	1054
Stephen X.	1057
Nicholas II.	1059
Alexander II.	1061
Gregory VII.	1073
Victor III.	1086
Urban II.	1088
Pascal II.	1099
Gelasus II.	1118
Calixtus II.	1119
Honorius II.	1124
Innocent II.	1130
Celestine II.	1143

	A.D.
Lucius II.	1144
Eugenius III.	1145
Anastatius IV.	1153
Adrian IV.	1154
Alexander III.	1159
Lucius III.	1181
Urban III.	1185
Gregory VIII.	1187
Clement III.	1188
Celestin III.	1191
Innocent III.	1198
Honorius III.	1216
Gregory IX.	1227
Celestin IV.	1241
Innocent IV.	1243
Alexander IV.	1254
Urban IV.	1261
Clement IV.	1265
Gregory X.	1271
Innocent V. / Adrian V. / John XIX.	1276
Nicholas III.	1277
Martin IV.	1281
Honorius IV.	1285
Nicholas IV.	1288
Celestine V. / Boniface VIII.	1294
Benedict X.	1303
Clement V.	1305
John XX.	1316
Benedict XI.	1334
Clement VI.	1342
Innocent VI.	1352
Urban V.	1362
Gregory XI.	1370
Urban VI.	1378
Boniface IX.	1389
Innocent VII.	1404
Gregory XII.	1406
Alexander V.	1409
John XXI.	1410
Martin V.	1417
Eugene IV.	1431
Nicholas V.	1447
Calixtus III.	1455
Pius II.	1458
Paul II.	1464
Sixtus IV.	1471
Innocent VIII.	1484
Alexander VI.	1492
Pius III. / Julius II.	1503
Leo X.	1513
Adrian VI.	1522
Clement VII.	1523
Paul III.	1534
Julius III.	1550
Marcellus II. / Paul IV.	1555
Pius IV.	1560
Pius V.	1566
Gregory XIII.	1572
Sixtus V.	1585
Urban VII. / Gregory XIV.	1590
Innocent IX.	1591
Clement VIII.	1592
Leo XI. / Paul V.	1605
Gregory XV.	1621
Urban VIII.	1623
Innocent X.	1644
Alexander VII.	1655
Clement IX.	1667
Clement X.	1670
Innocent XI.	1676
Alexander VIII.	1689
Innocent XII.	1691
Clement XI.	1700
Innocent XIII.	1721
Benedict XIII.	1724
Clement XII.	1730
Benedict XIV.	1740
Clement XIII.	1758
Pius VI.	1774
Pius VII.	1800
Leo XII.	1822
Pius VIII.	1829

Emperors of the East.

	A.D.
Arcadius	395
Theodosius II.	408
Marcianus	450
Leo I. the Thracian	457
Leo junior II. Zeno	474
Anastatius the Silentiary	491
Justin I. the Thracian	518
Justinian I.	527
Justin II.	565
Tiberius II.	578
Mauricius the Cappadocian	582
Phocas	602
Heraclius	610
Constantine III.	641
Constans II.	642
Constantine IV. Pogonatus	668
Justinian II.	685
Leontius	694
Absimerus Tiberius	697
Justinian II. restored	704
Phillipicus Bardanes	711
Anastatius II.	713
Theodosius III.	715
Leo III. Isauricus	717
Constantine V.	742
Leo IV.	775
Constantine VI.	780
Irene	797
Nicephorus	802
Michael I.	811
Leo V. the Armenian	813
Michael II. the Stammerer	821
Theophilus	829
Michael III. the Sot	842
Basilius the Macedonian	867
Leo VI. the Philosopher	886
Constantine VII. Porphyrogenitus	912
Romanus with Constantine	919
Romanus II.	959
Nicephorus II. Phocas	963
John Zimisces	969
Basilius II. and Constantine VIII.	975
Romanus III.	1028
Michael IV.	1034
Michael V.	1041
Constantine IX.	1042
Theodora	1054
Michael VI.	1056
Isaac Comnenus	1057
Constantine X. Ducas	1059
Romanus Diogenes	1068
Michael VII.	1071
Nicephorus III.	1078
Alexius Comnenus	1081
John Comnenus, Καλος	1118
Manuel Comnenus	1143
Alexius II.	1180
Andronicus I.	1183
Isaac Angelus Comnenus	1185
Alexius III. the Tyrant	1195
Isaac Angelus restored	1203
Theodore Lascaris	1204
John Ducas Vataces	1222
Theodore Lascaris II.	1255
John Lascaris	1258
Michael Palæologus	1259
Andronicus II.	1283
Andronicus III.	1320
John Palæologus	1341
John Cantacuzene	1347
John Palæologus restored	1355
Manuel	1391
John Palæologus	1424
Constantine Palæologus	1448

Khalifs.

	A.D.
Aboo Beker	632
Omar	634
Othman	644
Ali	656
Moawiah	660
Yezid	679
Moawiah II.	683
Abdalla	684
Merwan I.	684
Abdulmelek	685
Walid I.	705
Suleiman	714
Omar II.	717
Yezid II.	719
Hashem	723
Walid II.	742
Yezid III.	743
Ibrahim	744
Merwan II.	745
Saffah	750
Mansur	754
Mohadi	775
Hadi	785
Haroon Er Rasheed	786
Amin	809
Maimun	813
Motasim	833
Wathek	842
Motawakel	847
Mostanser	862
Mostain	862
Motaz	866
Mohtadi	869
Motamed / Muaffek	870
Motadhed	892
Mohtafi	902
Moktader	908
Kaher	932
Radhi	934
Motaki	940
Mostakfi	944
Moti	946
Tai	974
Kader	991
Kaim	1031
Moktadi	1075
Mostadher	1094
Mostarshed	1118
Rasheed	1135
Moktafi	1136
Mostanjed	1160
Mostadhi	1170
Naser	1180
Dhaher	1225
Mostanser	1226
Mostasem	1242

Arragon, Kings of.

	A.D.
Ramires	1035
Sancho	1067
Peter I.	1094
Alfonso I.	1104
Ramires II. the Monk	1134
Petronilla	1138
Alfonso II. the Chaste	1162
Peter II.	1196
James I. the Conqueror	1213
Peter III.	1276
Alfonso III. the Beneficent	1285
James II. the Just	1291
Alfonso IV.	1327
Peter IV. the Great	1336
John I.	1387
Martin	1395
Ferdinand I.	1410
Alfonso V.	1416
John II.	1458
Ferdinand II.	1481

Castile, Kings of.

Ferdinand the Great	1035
Sancho	1065
Alfonso VI. the Valiant	1072
Urraca	1109
Alfonso VII.	1122
Sancho III.	1157
Alfonso VIII. the Noble	1158
Peter II.	1196
Henry I.	1214
Alfonso IX.	1217
Ferdinand III.	1226
Alfonso X. the Wise	1252
Sancho IV.	1284
Ferdinand IV.	1295
Alfonso XI.	1312
Peter the Cruel	1350
Henry II. the Bastard	1369
John I.	1379
Henry III.	1390
John II.	1406
Henry IV. the Impotent	1454
Isabel and Ferdinand V.	1476

Spain, Kings of.

Charles I.	1516
Philip II.	1555
Philip III.	1598
Philip IV.	1621
Charles II.	1665
Philip V.	1700
Ferdinand VI.	1746
Charles III.	1759
Charles IV.	1788
Ferdinand VII.	1808

Portugal, Kings of.

Alfonso I.	1139
Sancho I.	1185
Alfonso II.	1212
Sancho II.	1223
Alfonso III.	1246
Dionysius	1279
Alfonso IV.	1325
Peter the Cruel	1357
Ferdinand	1367
Interregnum for 18 months	1383
John I. the Bastard	1385
Edward	1433
Alfonso V.	1438
John II.	1481
Emmanuel	1495
John III.	1521
Sebastian	1557
Henry the Cardinal	1578
United with Spain	1580
John IV. Duke of Braganza	1640
Alfonso VI.	1656
Peter II.	1668
John V.	1706
Joseph	1750
Maria Francisca	1777
John VI.	1799

Naples and Sicily, Kings of.

Roger II.	1127
William I. the Wicked	1153
William II the Good	1166
Tancred the Bastard	1189
William III.	1192
Constance and Henry VI.	1194
Subjected to the German Emperors, till 1250	1198
Conrad	1250
Interregnum	1253
Manfred	1254
Conrad II. / Charles of Anjou	1265

	A.D.
Naples alone.	
Charles II. the Lame	1284
Robert the Wise	1309
Joan I.	1343
Charles III.	1382
Ladislaus	1386
Joan II.	1414
Naples and Sicily.	
Alfonso, King of Arragon	1434
Ferdinand I.	1469
Alfonso II.	1494
Ferdinand II.	1495
Frederick	1506
Became subject to Spain for 230 years	
Charles VII.	1735
Ferdinand IV.	1759
Francis	1825

DENMARK, KINGS OF.

Canute II. the Great	1014
Canute III.	1036
Magnus	1041
Sueno II.	1048
Harold	1074
Canute IV. the Saint	1076
Olaus, surnamed Hunger	1086
Eric III. the Good	1096
Nicholas	1107
Eric IV. Harefoot	1135
Eric V. the Lamb	1139
Sueno III. the Great	1147
Magnus III., restoration of	1147
Waldemar	1157
Canute V.	1182
Waldemar II.	1202
Eric VI.	1242
Abel	1250
Christopher	1252
Eric VII.	1259
Eric VIII.	1286
Christopher II.	1321
Waldemar III.	1333
Margaret	1375
Eric IX.	1412
Denmark and Norway united.	
Christopher III.	1428
Christian I.	1448
John I.	1481
Christian II.	1513
Frederick I.	1522
Christian III.	1538
Frederick II.	1559
Christian IV.	1588
Frederick III.	1648
Christian V.	1670
Frederick IV.	1699
Christian VI.	1730
Frederick V.	1746
Christian VII.	1766
Frederick VI.	1808

SWEDEN, KINGS OF.

Amund II.	1019
Amund III.	1035
Haquin III. the Red	1041
Stenchill and Ingo III.	1059
Halstan	1064
Philip	1080
Ingo IV.	1110
Ragnald	1129
Svercher II.	1140
Eric X. the Saint	1160
Charles VII.	1162
Canute	1168
Svercher III.	1192
Eric XI.	1210
John	1218
Eric XII. the Stutterer	1222
Waldemar	1250
Magnus II.	1276
Birger II.	1282
Magnus III.	1326
Albert	1363
Margaret	1388
Eric XIII.	1396
Christopher, King of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway	1438
Charles VIII.	1448
Interregnum, thirteen years	1470
John, King of Denmark	1485
Christian II.	1513
Gustavus I. Vasa	1523
Eric XIV.	1560
John III.	1568
Sigismund, king of Poland	1592
Charles IX.	1598
Gustavus II. Adolphus	1612
Christina	1632
Charles X.	1654
Charles XI.	1660
Charles XII.	1696
Frederick and Ulrica	1718
Adolphus Frederick	1751
Gustavus III.	1771
Gustavus IV.	1792
Charles XIII.	1809
Charles XIV.	1818

POLAND, KINGS OF.

	A.D.
Premislaus	1295
Vladislaus IV.	1296
Wenceslaus	1300
Vladislaus IV.	1305
Casimir III. the Great	1333
Lewis, King of Hungary	1370
Interregnum of 3 years	1383
Jagellon and Vladislaus IV.	1386
Vladislaus V.	1434
Interregnum of 3 years	1444
Casimir IV.	1447
John I. Albert	1492
Alexander	1501
Sigismund I.	1507
Sigismund II. Augustus	1548
Henry of Anjou	1573
Stephen Balore	1576
Sigismund III.	1587
Vladislaus VI.	1632
John II. Casimir	1648
Michael	1669
John III. Sobieski	1674
Augustus II.	1697
Frederick Augustus III.	1734

RUSSIA, TSARS OF.

Fedor	1585
Boris Godunof	1598
Interregnum	1604
Michael	1613
Alexi	1645
Fedor II.	1676
Sophia, Ivan, and Peter the Great	1682
Peter the Great alone	1696
Catherine	1725
Peter II.	1727
Anne	1730
Ivan III.	1740
Elizabeth	1741
Peter III.	1762
Catherine II.	1762
Paul	1796
Alexander	1801
Nicholas	1825

France.

Merovingians.

	A.D.
Clovis	481
Childebert	511
Clotaire	558
Caribert	562
Chilperic	567
Clotaire II.	584
Dagobert	628
Clovis II.	644
Clotaire III.	660
Childeric II.	668
Thierri	673
Clovis III.	690
Childebert II.	695
Dagobert II.	711
Chilperic II.	716
Thierri II.	720
Childeric III.	742

Carlovingians.

Pepin	751
Charlemagne	768
Lewis I. le Debonaire	814
Charles the Bald	840
Lewis II. the Stammerer	877
Lewis III. and Carloman	879
Charles the Fat	884
Eudes	888
Charles the Simple	898
Rodolph	923
Lewis IV. Outremer	936
Lothaire	954
Lewis V.	986

Capetians.

Hugh Capet	987
Robert I. the Wise	996
Henry I.	1031
Philip I. l'Amoureux	1061
Lewis VI. the Fat	1108
Lewis VII. the Young	1137
Philip II. Augustus	1180
Lewis VIII. the Lion	1223
Lewis IX. the Saint	1226
Philip III. the Bold	1270
Philip IV. the Fair	1285
Lewis X.	1314
John I. (*lived but 8 days*)	1315
Philip V. the Long	1316
Charles IV. the Fair	1321

House of Valois.

Philip VI. of Valois, the Fortunate	1328
John II.	1351
Charles V. the Wise	1364
Charles VI. the Beloved	1380
Charles VII. the Victorious	1422
Lewis XI.	1461
Charles VIII.	1483
Lewis XII.	1498
Francis I.	1515
Henry II.	1547
Francis II.	1559
Charles IX.	1560
Henry III.	1574

House of Bourbon.

Henry IV. the Great	1589
Lewis XIII.	1610
Lewis XIV.	1643
Lewis XV.	1715
Louis XVI.	1774
Louis XVII.	1793
Louis XVIII.	1796
Charles X.	1824

England, Kings of.

Anglo-Saxon line.

Egbert	828
Ethelwolf	838
Ethelbald	857
Ethelbert	860
Ethelred I.	866
Alfred the Great	872
Edward the Elder	900
Athelstan	925
Edmund I.	941
Edred	948
Edwy	955
Edgar the Peaceable	959
Edward II. the Martyr	975
Ethelred II. the Unready	978
Edmund II. Ironside	1016
Canute the Great, King of Denmark	1017
Harold Harefoot	1036
Canute II. Hardicanute	1039
Edward III. the Confessor	1041
Harold II.	1066

Norman Line.

William the Conqueror	1066
William II. Rufus	1087
Henry I.	1100
Stephen of Blois	1135

House of Plantagenet.

Henry II. Plantagenet	1154
Richard I. Cœur de Lion	1189
John Lackland	1199
Henry III. of Winchester	1216
Edward I. Long Shanks	1272
Edward II. of Caernarvon	1307
Edward III. of Windsor	1327
Richard II. of Bordeaux	1377
Henry IV. of Bolingbroke	1399
Henry V. of Monmouth	1413
Henry VI. of Windsor	1422
Edward IV.	1461
Edward V. and Richard III. Crook Back	1483

House of Tudor.

Henry VII.	1485
Henry VIII.	1509
Edward VI.	1547
Mary	1553
Elizabeth	1558

Great Britain.

House of Stuart.

James I.	1603
Charles I.	1625
Commonwealth	1649
Charles II.	1660
James II.	1685
William III. and Mary	1689
Anne	1702

House of Brunswick.

George I.	1714
George II.	1727
George III.	1760
George IV.	1820

Scotland, Kings of.

Malcolm II.	1004
Duncan	1034
Macbeth	1040
Malcolm III. Cean Mohr	1056
Donald Bane	1093
Duncan II.	1095
Edgar	1098
Alexander I.	1107
David I.	1124
Malcolm IV.	1153
William	1166
Alexander II.	1214
Alexander III.	1249

	A.D.
Interregnum of 7 years	1286
John Baliol	1292
Interregnum	1301
Robert Bruce	1306
David II.	1329
Robert II.	1371
Robert III.	1390
James I.	1406
James II.	1437
James III.	1460
James IV.	1488
James V.	1513
Mary	1542
James VI.	1567

GERMANY, EMPERORS OF.

Arnulf	888
Lewis III.	900
Conrad	912
Henry I. the Fowler	920
Otho I. the Great	936
Otho II. the Bloody	973
Otho III. the Red	983
Henry II. the Lame	1002
Conrad II. the Salique	1024
Henry III. the Black	1039
Henry IV.	1056
Henry V.	1106
Lotharlo the Saxon	1125
Conrad III.	1138
Frederick I. Barbarossa	1152
Henry VI. the Severe	1190
Philip	1198
Otho IV.	1208
Frederick II.	1212
William	1250
Interregnum for 17 years	1256
Rodolph of Habsburg, first of the Austrian Family	1273
Adolphus of Nassau	1291
Albert I. of Austria	1298
Interregnum 1 year	1308
Henry VII. of Luxemburgh	1309
Lewis IV. the Bavarian	1314
Charles IV. of Luxemburgh	1347
Wenceslaus	1378
Rupert	1400
Jossus	1410
Sigismund, King of Hungary	
Albert II. of Austria	1438
Frederick III.	1440
Maximilian I.	1493
Charles V.	1519
Ferdinand I.	1558
Maximilian II.	1564
Rodolph II.	1576
Mathias	1612
Ferdinand II.	1619
Ferdinand III.	1637
Leopold	1658
Joseph	1705
Charles VI.	1711
Charles VII.	1741
Francis I.	1745
Joseph II.	1765
Leopold II.	1790
Francis II.	1792

PRUSSIA, KINGS OF.

Frederic I.	1701
Frederic William I.	1713
Frederic II.	1740
Frederic William II.	1786
Frederic Willm. III.	1797

OTTOMAN EMPERORS.

Osman	1298
Orchan	1325
Moorad or Amurath I.	1358
Bayezeed I.	1389
Interregnum	1402
Mohammed I.	1413
Amurath II.	1421
Mohammed II.	1451
Bayezeed II.	1481
Selim I.	1512
Suleiman I.	1520
Selim II.	1566
Amurath III.	1574
Mohammed III.	1595
Ahmed I.	1604
Mustafa	1617
Amurath IV.	1623
Ibrahim	1640
Mohammed IV.	1655
Suleiman II.	1687
Ahmed II.	1690
Mustafa II.	1695
Ahmed III.	1703
Mahmood I.	1730
Mustafa III.	1757
Abdul Ahmed	1774
Selim III.	1789
Mustafa IV. Mahmood II.	1808

CHINESE DYNASTIES.

	B.C.
Hia	
Chang	
Chew 35 Emperors	1122
Tsin 4	— 248
Western Han 25	— 206
	A.D.
Eastern Han 2	— 238
Eastern Tsin 16	— 265
Song 8	— 420
Tsi 5	— 480
Leäng 4	— 502
Chien 5	— 560
Song or Svee 3	— 590
Tang 20	— 618
Second Leäng 2	— 911
Second Tang 5	— 924
Second Tsin 2	— 937
Han 2	— 948
Second Chew 3	— 951
Song 18	— 960
Yven 9	—1280
Ming 16	—1368
Tai Tsin 5	—1644

TABULAR VIEW

OF THE

STATE OF LITERATURE AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

*** *antiq.* antiquities; *arch.* architecture; *f. ch.* father of the church; *geog.* geography; *h.* history and its kindred sciences; *l.* law; *mat.* mathematics; *med.* medicine; *miscel.* miscellaneous literature; *nat. hist.* natural history; *nat. ph.* natural philosophy; *or.* oratory; *p.* poetry and imaginative composition; *ph.* philosophy; *phi.* philology; *pol. lit.* polite literature; *pr.* prophecy; *rhet.* rhetoric; *rom.* romance; *th.* theology.

A. Arabian; D. Danish; Ic. Icelandic; Ir. Irish; Pe. Persian; Po. Portuguese; Sc. Scottish; Sw. Swedish; Swi. Swiss; Sy. Syrian.

ANCIENT WORLD.

10th CENTURY, B.C.
Greek.
Homer? *p.*

8th CENTURY.
Hebrew.
Isaiah, *pr.*
Greek.
Hesiod? *p.*

7th CENTURY.
Hebrew.
Jeremiah, *pr.*
Greek.
Tyrtæus, *p.*
Archilochus, *p.*
Alcman, *p.*

6th CENTURY.
Hebrew.
Ezekiel, *pr.*
Daniel, *pr.*
Greek.
Alcæus, *p.*
Sappho, *p.*
Solon, *p.* and *ph.*
Stesichorus, *p.*
Mimnermus, *p.*
Anacreon, *p.*
Thales, *ph.*
Pythagoras, *ph.*

5th CENTURY.
Hebrew.
Ezra, *h.*
Nehemiah, *h.*
Greek.
Simonides, *p.*
Æschylus, *p.*
Pindar, *p.*
Anaxagoras, *ph.*
Herodotus, *h.*
Sophocles, *p.*
Euripides, *p.*
Aristophanes, *p.*
Thucydides, *h.*
Socrates, *ph.*

4th CENTURY.
Greek.
Lysias, *or.*
Xenophon, *ph.* and *h.*
Hippocrates, *med.*
Democritus, *ph.*
Plato, *ph.*
Isocrates, *or.*
Demosthenes, *or.*
Æschines, *or.*
Aristotle, *ph.*

3d CENTURY.
Greek.
Euclid, *nat. ph.*
Theophrastus, *nat. ph.*
Callimachus, *p.*
Theocritus, *p.*
Apollonius, *p.*
Archimedes, *nat. ph.*
Eratosthenes, *nat. ph.*

2d CENTURY.
Greek.
Polybius, *h.*
Latin.
Fabius Pictor, *h.*
Cincius, *h.*
Ennius, *p.*
Plautus, *p.*
Terence, *p.*
Cato, *ph.*
Lucilius, *p.*

1st CENTURY.
Greek.
Dionysius Hal. *h.*
Diodorus, *h.*
Strabo, *geog.*
Latin.
Varro, *phi.*
Lucretius, *p.*
Cicero, *or.* and *ph.*
Catullus, *p.*
Julius Cæsar, *h.*
Sallust, *h.*
Virgil, *p.*
Horace, *p.*
Livy, *h.*
Vitruvius, *arch.*
Propertius, *p.*
Tibullus, *p.*
Ovid, *p.*

1st CENTURY of the Christian Æra.
Greek.
Dioscorides, *med.*
Pausanias, *h.*
Plutarch, *ph.* and *h.*
Epictetus, *ph.*
Latin.
Velleius Paterculus, *h.*
Celsus, *med.*
Persius, *p.*
Lucan, *p.*
Seneca, *ph.*
Statius, *p.*
Martial, *p.*
Quintilian, *rhet.*

Juvenal, *p.*
Pliny, senior, *nat. ph.*
Tacitus, *h.*
Suetonius, *h.*

2d CENTURY.
Greek.
Ælian, *h.*
Appian, *h.*
Ptolemy, *geog.*
Arrian, *h.*
Lucian, *ph.*
Galen, *med.*
Jamblichus, *ph.*
Justin Mart. *f. ch.*
Irenæus, *f. ch.*
Athenagoras, *f. ch.*
Latin.
Gellius, *ph.*
Apuleius, *ph.*
Solinus, *geog.*

3d CENTURY.
Greek.
Dio Cassius, *h.*
Herodian, *h.*
Origen, *f. ch.*
Porphyry, *ph.*
Latin.
Ulpian, *l.*
Tertullian, *f. ch.*
Cyprian, *f. ch.*
Minutius Felix, *f. ch.*

4th CENTURY.
Greek.
Eusebius, *f. ch.*
Athanasius, *f. ch.*
Gregory Naz. *f. ch.*
Gregory Nyss. *f. ch.*
Cyril, *f. ch.*
Chrysostom, *f. ch.*
Latin.
Arnobius, *f. ch.*
Lactantius, *f. ch.*
Ambrose, *f. ch.*
Jerome, *f. ch.*
Augustine, *f. ch.*
Ammianus, *h.*
Macrobius, *ph.*
Claudian, *p.*

5th CENTURY.
Greek.
Socrates, *h.*
Sozomen, *h.*
Theodoret, *h.*
Latin.
Orosius, *h.*

6th CENTURY.
Greek.
Tribonian, *l.*
Procopius, *h.*
Agathias, *h.*
Latin.
Boethius, *ph.*
Cassiodorus, *h.*
Jornandes, *Goth*, *h.*
Gildas, *Briton*, *h.*
Gregory of Tours, *Gaul*, *h.*

MIDDLE AGES.

The five succeeding centuries present few names of any importance. They were the *dark* ages: we may notice the following:

In the 8th Century,
Bede, *Saxon*, *h.*
Paul Warnefrid, *Lombard*, *h.*

In the 9th Century,
Alfred, *ph. h.* } *Saxons.*
Asser, *h.* }
John Erigena, *Irish*, *ph.*
Eginhart, *German*, *h.*

In the 11th Century,
Xiphilin } *Greeks*, *h.*
Theophylact }
Adam of Bremen, *h.*
Nestor, *Russian*, *h.*
Avicenna, *Arab*, *med.*
Ferdoussee, *Persian*, *p.*

During the dark ages of Europe, literature greatly flourished among the Arabs.

12th CENTURY.
Greek.
Anna Comnena, *h.*
Cinnamus, *h.*
Eustathius, *phi.*
Tzetzes, *phi.*
Latin.
The historians of the crusades, mostly French.

English.
Geoffrey Monmouth, *h. Latin.*
William Malmsbury, *h. Latin.*
Henry Huntington, *h. Latin.*
Giraldus Cambrensis, *h. Latin.*
William Newbury, *h. Latin.*
Joseph Exon, *h. Latin.*

John Salisbury, *th. Latin.*
Layamon, *p. Anglo-Sax.*
French.
Abelard } *Latin, th.*
P. Lombard }
Wace, *French*, *p.*
Scandinavian.
Saxo Grammaticus, D. *h. Latin.*
Sæmund, Ic. *p.* and *h. Icelandic.*
Oriental.
Averroes, A. *med.*
Enveri, Pe. *p.*

13th CENTURY.
Italian.
P. de Vineis, *h.*
Malespini, *h.*
Thomas Aquinas, *th.*
Marco Polo, *h.*
French.
Villehardouin, *h.*
Joinville, *h.*
Spanish.
Berceo, *p.*
English.
Roger Hoveden, *h. Latin.*
Gervase Tilbury, *h. Latin.*
Roger Wendover, *h. Latin.*
Matthew Paris, *h. Latin.*
R. Grostete, *th. Latin.*
R. Bacon, *ph. Latin.*
Duns Scotus, *th. Latin.*
German.
Albertus Magnus, *ph.*
The last half of the preceding, and the first half of this century, were the Suabian p-

riod, in which poetry flourished so much in Germany.

Scandinavian.

Snorro Sturleson, Ic. *h.*

Oriental.

Boha-ed-deen, A. *h.*
Aboo-'l-Faraj, Sy. *h.*
Elmacin, A. *h.*
Saadi, Pe. *p.*
Casveenee, Pe. *p.*

14th CENTURY.

Italian.

	Died.
Dante, *p.*	1321
J. Villani, *h.*	1348
Petrarca, *p.*	1374
Boccaccio, *p.*	1375
French.	
Froissart, *h.*	1400
English.	
Occam, *th.*	1347
Higden, *h.*	
Knighton, *h.*	
Mat. of Westminster, *h.*	
Fordun, Sc. *h.*	
Langlande, *p.*	
Chaucer, *p.*	1400
Gower, *p.*	1402
Oriental.	
Aboo-'l-Feda, A., *h.*	
Hafiz, Pe. *p.*	

15th CENTURY.

Italian.

Poggio, *h.* and *phi.*	1459
L. Valla, *rhet.* and *phi.*	1457
Æneas Sylvius, *h.*	1464
Platina, *h.*	1481
Pulci, *p.*	1487
Politian, *p.* and *h.*	1494
Pico Mirandola, *ph.* and *phi.*	1496
Ficino, *ph.*	1499
Aldus Manutius, *phi.*	1515
Boiardo, *p.*	1496
French.	
Monstrelet, *h.*	1453
Comines, *h.*	1509
Budæus, *phi.*	1540
Spanish.	
Villena, *p.*	1434
J. de Mena	1456
Pulgar	
English.	
Lydgate, *p.*	
Walsingham, *h.*	
Fortescue, *l.*	
Littleton, *l.*	
Lord Berners, *h.*	
Caxton, *phi.*	1492
German.	
T. à Kempis, *th.*	1471
Reuchlin, *phi.*	1522
Oriental.	
Sheriff-ed-deen, Pe. *p.*	
Ibn Arabshah, A., *h.*	
Jami, Pe. *p.*	1492

MODERN TIMES.

16th CENTURY.

Italian.

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
Sannazaro, *p.*	1458.	1530
Ariosto, *p.*	1476.	1533
Berni, *p.*		1536
Machiavelli, *h.*	1469.	1527
Bembo, *h.* and *p.*	1470.	1547
Guicciardini, *h.*	1482.	1540
J. C. Scaliger, *phi.*	1484.	1558
Vida, *p.*	1480.	1566
Cardan, *ph.*	1501.	1576
Torquato Tasso, *p.*	1544.	1595
Baronius, *h.*	1538.	1607
Guarini, *p.*	1537.	1619
Varchi, *h.*	1502.	1565
Davanzati, *h.*	1529.	1606
Ammirato, *h.*	1531.	1601
Sarpi, *h.*	1552.	1619
Marini, *p.*	1569.	1625
Tassoni, *p.*	1565.	1635
Davila, *h.*	1576.	1631
French.		
Marot, *p.*	1495.	1544
Rabelais, *p.*	1483.	1553
Du Bellay, *p.*	1492.	1560
R. Stephens, *phi.*	1503.	1559
Calvin, *th.*	1509.	1564
Ramus, *ph.*	1515.	1571
Lambinus, *phi.*	1516.	1571
H. Stephens, *phi.*	1528.	1598
Amyot, *h.*	1514	1573
Ronsard, *p.*	1524.	1585
Montaigne, *miscel.*	1533.	1592
Garnier, *p.*	1534	1590
Beza, *th.*	1520.	1605
J. J. Scaliger, *phi.*	1540.	1609
Casaubon, *phi.*	1559.	1614
De Thou, *h.*	1553.	1617
Malherbe, *p.*	1556.	1628
Spanish.		
Boscan, *p.*	1496.	1543
Garcil. de la Vega, *p.*	1503.	1536
Las Casas, *h.*	1474.	1566
San e Miranda, Po. *p.*	1495.	1558
Camoens, Po. *p.*	1524.	1579
Barros, Po. *h.*	1496.	1570
Lobo, Po. *p.*	1496.	1570
Zurita, *h.*	1512.	1581
Montemayor, *p.*	1520.	1562
Luis de Leon, *p.*	1527.	1591
Ercilla, *p.*	1525.	1595
Mariana, *h.*	1536.	1623
Cervantes, *p.*	1547.	1616
Herrera, *h.*	1565.	1625
English.		
Dunbar, Sc. *p.*	1465.	1536
Gawin Douglas, Sc. *p.*	1474.	1522
Sir T. More, *h.* and *ph.*	1480.	1535
Wyatt, *p.*	1503.	1541

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
Howard, Earl of Surrey, *p.*	1515.	1547
Leland, *h.*		1552
Hollinshed, *h.*		1582
Napier, Sc. *nat. ph.*	1550.	1617
Camden, *h.*	1551.	1623
Hakluyt, *h.*	1553.	1616
Raleigh, *h.*	1552.	1618
Speed, *h.*	1555.	1629
Daniel, *p.*	1562.	1619
Bacon, *ph.* and *h.*	1560.	1626
Sir P. Sydney, *p.*	1554.	1586
Hooker, *th.*	1553.	1600
Stow, *h.*	1525.	1605
Marlowe, *p.*	1562.	1593
Spenser, *p.*	1553.	1599
Shakspeare, *p.*	1564.	1616
Beaumont, *p.*	1586.	1616
Fletcher, *p.*	1576.	1625
German.		
Agrippa, *ph.*	1486.	1539
Luther, *th.*	1488.	1546
Zuinglius, Swi. *th.*	1484.	1531
Glareanus, Swi. *phi.*	1488.	1563
Paracelsus, *nat. ph.*	1493.	1541
Melancthon, *th.*	1497.	1560
Sleidan, *h.*	1506.	1556
Hans Sachs, *p.*	1494.	1578
Mercator, *geog.*	1512.	1594
Xylander, *phi.*	1532.	1576
Sylburg, *phi.*	1565.	1613
Taubmann, *phi.*	1565.	1613
Buxtorf, *phi.*	1564.	1629
Dutch.		
Erasmus, *phi.*	1467.	1536
Secundus, *p.*	1511.	1536
Lipsius, *phi.*	1547.	1606
Erpenius, *phi.*	1584.	1624
Scandinavian.		
Olaus Magnus, Sw. *h.*		1560
Tycho Brahe, D., *nat. ph.*	1546.	1601

17th CENTURY.

Italian.		
Bentivoglio, *h.*	1579.	1644
Chiabrera, *p.*	1599.	1637
Bellarmino, *th.*	1542.	1621
Galileo, *nat. ph.*	1564.	1642
Vanini, *ph.*	1585.	1619
Torricelli, *nat. ph.*	1608.	1647
Strada, *h.*	1572.	1649
Salvator Rosa, *p.* and *painting.*	1615.	1673
Redi, *p.* and *nat. ph.*	1626.	1694
Malpighi, *med.*	1628.	1694
Filicaia, *p.*	1642.	1707
Cassini, *nat. ph.*	1635.	1712
Menzini, *p.*	1646.	1704
French.		
Sully, *h.*	1560.	1641
Spondanus, *phi.*	1568.	1595
Salmasius, *phi.*	1588.	1655
Petavius, *phi.*	1583.	1652
Gassendi, *ph.*	1592.	1655
Bochart, *phi.* and *th.*	1599.	1667
Descartes, *nat. ph.*	1596.	1650
Valesius, *phi.*	1608.	1676
Corneille, *p.*	1606.	1684
Ménage, *phi.* and *miscel.*	1613.	1692
St. Evremond, *pol. lit.*	1613.	1703
Scarron, *p.*	1610.	1660
Pascal, *ph.*	1623.	1662
Rochefoucault, *ph.*	1613.	1680
Molière, *p.*	1620.	1673
D'Herbelot, *h.*	1625.	1695
De Retz, *h.*	1614.	1679
La Fontaine, *p.*	1621.	1695
Racine, *p.*	1639.	1699
Huet, *phi.*	1630.	1721
Bourdaloue, *th.*	1632.	1704
Hôpital, *nat. ph.*	1606.	1704
Bossuet, *h.* and *th.*	1627.	1704
Hardouin, *phi.*	1647.	1729
Fleury, *h.* and *th.*	1640.	1722
Fénélon, *p.* and *th.*	1651.	1715
Anne Dacier, *phi.*	1651.	1720
Boileau, *p.*	1636.	1711
La Bruyère, *ph.*	1644.	1696
Bayle, *ph.*	1647.	1706
Malebranche, *ph.*	1628.	1715
Spanish.		
Gongora, *p.*	1562.	1627
Lope de Vega, *p.*	1563.	1635
Quevedo, *pol. lit.*	1570.	1647
Faria y Sousa, Po. *h.*	1590.	1649
Calderon, *p.*	1601.	1687
Solis, *h.* and *p.*	1610.	1686
Moreto, *p.*		
English.		
Donne, *p.*	1573.	1631
Coke, *l.*	1550.	1634
Ben Jonson, *p.*	1574.	1637
Massinger, *p.*	1584.	1640
Spelman, *h.*	1562.	1641
Drayton, *p.*	1563.	1631
Purchas, *h.*	1577.	1628
Harvey, *med.*	1578.	1658
Selden, *h.* and *l.*	1584.	1654
Usher, Ir. *th.*	1580.	1655
Chillingworth, *th.*	1602.	1644
Hobbes, *ph.*	1588.	1679
Shirley, *p.*	1594.	1666
Clarendon, *h.*	1608.	1674
Jeremy Taylor, *th.*	1613.	1667
Barrow, *th.*	1630.	1677
Boyle, Ir. *nat. ph.*	1627.	1691
Butler, *p.*	1634.	1681
Milton, *p.*	1608.	1674
Waller, *p.*	1605.	1687
Cowley, *p.*	1618.	1687

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
Temple, *miscel.*	1628.	1700
Cudworth, *ph.*	1617.	1688
Sir T. Brown, *ph.*	1605.	1682
H. More, *ph.*	1614.	1687
Lee, *p.*		1691
Dryden, *p.*	1631.	1700
Sydenham, *med.*	1624.	1689
Tillotson, *th.*	1630.	1694
Bunyan, *th.*	1628.	1688
Otway, *p.*	1652.	1685
South, *th.*	1633.	1716
Ray, *nat. ph.*	1628.	1705
Locke, *ph.*	1632.	1704
Hooke, *nat. ph.*	1635.	1703
T. Burnet, *th.*	1635.	1715
G. Burnet, Sc. *h.* & *th.*	1643.	1715.
Newton, *nat. ph.*	1642.	1727
Flamsteed, *nat. ph.*	1646.	1719
Farquhar, Ir. *p*	1678.	1707
German.		
Kepler, *nat. ph.*	1571.	1630
Cluverius, *geog.*	1580.	1623
Vossius, *th.*	1577.	1649
Helmont, *nat. ph.*	1577.	1644
Opitz, *p.*	1597.	1639
Olearius, *h.*	1600.	1671
E. Spanheim, Swi *phi.*	1629.	1710
Pufendorf, *h.*	1631.	1694
Grævius, *phi.*	1632.	1703
Leibnitz, *ph.*	1646.	1716
Dutch.		
D. Heinsius, *phi.*	1580.	1655
Cats, *p.*	1577.	1660
Hooft, *p.* and *h.*	1581.	1647
Vondel, *p.*	1587.	1679
Grotius, *h.* and *ph.*	1583.	1645
Huygens, *nat. ph.*	1629.	1695
J. Gronovius, *phi.*	1645.	1716
Leusden, *phi.*	1624.	1699
I. Vossius, *phi.*	1618.	1688
N. Heinsius, *phi.*	1620.	1681
Spinosa, *ph.*	1623.	1677
Leuwenhoek, *nat. ph.*	1632.	1723
Perizonius, *phi.* & *h.*	1651.	1717
Swammerdam, *nat. ph.*	1637.	1680
Limborch, *th.*	1638.	1712
Burmann, *phi.*	1668.	1741
Scandinavian.		
Bartholinus, D. *med.*	1616.	1680
Torfæus, Ic *h.*	1660.	1720
Rudbeck, Sw. *med.* and *ph.*	1630.	1702

18th CENTURY.

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
Italian.		
Gravina, *l. p.* and *pol. lit.*	1664.	1728
Vico, *ph.*	1670.	1740
Fortinguerra, *p.*	1674.	1735
Crescimbeni, *h.* and *pol. lit.*	1663.	1728
Zeno, *p.*	1688.	1750
Maffei, *p.* and *h.*	1675.	1755
Muratori, *h.*	1672.	1750
Ginnnone, *h.*	1676.	1769
Morgagni, *med.*	1682.	1771
Frugoni, *p.*	1692.	1768
Metastasio, *p.*	1698.	1789
Quadrio, *pol. lit.*	1695.	1756
Algarotti, *ph.*	1712.	1764
Boscovich, *nat. ph.*	1711.	1787
Genovesi, *ph.*	1712.	1769
Goldoni, *p.*	1707.	1795
Gozzi, *p.*		
Beccaria, *ph.*	1735.	1794
Casti, *p.*	1721.	1803
Tiraboschi, *h.*	1731.	1794
Spallanzani, *med.*	1729.	1798
Pignotti, *h.* and *p.*	1739.	1812
Alfieri, *p.*	1749.	1803
Galvani, *nat. ph.*	1737.	1798
Volta, *nat. ph.*	1745	1826
Lanzi, *h.*	1732.	1810
Filangieri, *ph.*	1752.	1788
Fontana, *nat. ph.*	1730.	1805
Lagrange, *nat. ph.*	1736.	1813
Bettinelli, *pol. lit.*	1718.	1808
Denina, *h.*	1731.	1813
Cesarotti, *p.*	1750.	1808
Cagnoli, *nat ph.*		1816
French.		
Basnage, *h.*	1653.	1723
Vertot, *h.*	1655.	1735
Fontenelle, *ph.* and *p.*	1657.	1757
Montfaucon, *h.*	1655.	1741
Rapin, *h.*	1661.	1725
Massillon, *th.*	1663.	1762
Rollin, *h.*	1661.	1741
J. B. Rousseau, *p.*	1670.	1741
Crébillon, *p.*	1674.	1762
Le Sage, *rom.*	1668.	1747
Folard, *h.*	1669.	1752
Saurin, *th.*	1677.	1730
Marivaux, *rom.*	1688.	1763
Réaumur, *nat. ph.*	1683.	1757
Houbigant, *th.*	1686.	1783
Hénault, *h.*	1685.	1770
Montesquieu, *h.* & *ph.*	1689.	1755
Voltaire, *p.*, *ph.*, and *h.*	1694.	1778
J. J. Rousseau, Swi. *p.* and *ph.*	1711.	1777
Helvetius, *ph.*	1715.	1771
Diderot, *ph.*	1713.	1784
Anquétil du Perron, *h.*	1731.	1805
Goguet, *h.*	1716.	1758
Buffon, *nat. hist.*	1707.	1788
Barthélémy, *h.*	1716.	1795
Gresset, *p.*	1709.	1777
Condillac, *ph.*	1715.	1780
Marmontel, *p.*	1723.	1799
De Guignes, *h.*	1721.	1800
Condorcet, *ph.*	1743.	1794
St. Lambert, *p.*	1717.	1805

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
D'Anville, *geog.*	1697.	1782
Raynal, *h.*	1718.	1794
Millot, *h.*	1726.	1785
D'Alembert, *ph.* & *mat.*	1717.	1784
Fourcroy, *nat. ph.*	1716.	1791
Bailly, *ph.* and *mat.*	1736.	1793
Lavoisier, *nat. ph.*	1743.	1794
Montucla, *mat.*	1725.	1799
Lalande, *nat. ph.*	1732.	1807
Dupuis, *ph.*	1742.	1809
Cabanis, *med.*	1756.	1807
Bichat, *med.*	1771.	1802
Volney, *ph.* and *h.*	1755.	1820
Haüy, *nat. ph.*	1743.	1822
Spanish.		
Ferreras, *h.*	1652.	1735
Feyjoo, *ph.*	1701.	1765
Isla, *rom.*	1714.	1785
Moratin, *p.*		1780
Yriarte, *p.*	1750.	1793
Jovellanos, *ph.*	1749.	1812
English.		
Shaftesbury, *ph.*	1671.	1713
Parnell, Ir. *p.*	1679.	1717
Strype, *h.*	1647.	1737
Ockley, *h.*	1678.	1720
Bentley, *phi.*	1661.	1742
Prior, *p.*	1664.	1721
Swift, Ir. *miscel.*	1656.	1745
Steel, Ir. *p.* and *miscel.*	1671.	1729
Hoadley, *th.*	1676.	1761
Defoe, *miscel.*	1663.	1731
Addison, *p.* and *miscel.*	1672.	1720
Rowe, *p.*	1673.	1718
Congreve, Ir. *p.*	1670.	1729
Vanbrugh, *p.*	1672.	1726
Carte, *h.*	1686.	1754
Halley, *nat. ph.*	1656.	1741
Bolingbroke, *miscel.*	1672.	1751
T. Sherlock, *theol.*	1678.	1761
Berkeley, Ir. *ph.*	1684.	1753
Gay, *p.*	1688.	1732
Richardson, *rom.*	1689.	1761
Middleton, *h.* & *miscel.*	1683.	1750
Bradley, *nat. ph.*	1692.	1762
Young, *p.*	1681.	1765
Pope, *p.*	1688.	1744
A. Ramsay, Sc. *p.*	1685.	1758
Thomson, Sc. *p.*	1700.	1748
Fielding, *rom.*	1707.	1754
Sterne, *miscel.*	1713.	1768
Hartley, *ph.*	1705.	1757
Shenstone, *p.*	1714.	1763
Collins, *p.*	1720.	1756
Jortin, *th.*	1698.	1770
Hume, Sc. *h.* & *ph.*	1732.	1776
Lyttleton, *h.* and *p.*	1709.	1773
Akenside, *p.*	1721.	1770
Warburton, *th.*	1698.	1779
Smollett, Sc. *rom. h.* and *miscel*	1711.	1771
Gray, *p.*	1716.	1771

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
Robertson, Sc. *h.*	1721.	1793
J. Hunter, Sc. *nat. ph.*	1728.	1793
H. Walpole, *h.* & *miscel.*	1728.	1797
Goldsmith, Ir. *p.* & *misc.*	1728.	1777
Chatterton, *p.*	1752.	1770
T. Warton, *p.* and *h.*	1728.	1790
Johnson, *miscel.*	1709.	1784
Law, *th.*	1703.	1787
Darwin, *p.* and *med.*	1721.	1802
Beattie, Sc. *p.* and *ph.*	1735.	1803
Blackstone, *l.*	1723.	1780
A. Smith, Sc. *ph.*	1723.	1791
Gibbon, *h.*	1737.	1794
Priestley, *nat. ph.* & *th.*	1733.	1804
H. Tooke, *phi.*	1736.	1812
Black, Sc. *nat. ph.*	1728.	1795
Macpherson, Sc. *p.* & *h.*	1738.	1796
Burke, Ir. *miscel.*	1730.	1797
Price, *th.* and *miscel.*	1725.	1791
Paley, *th.* and *ph.*	1743.	1805
Burns, Sc. *p.*	1759.	1796
Maskelyne, *nat. ph.*	1732.	1811
Porson, *phi.*	1759.	1808
Herschel, *nat. ph.*	1738.	1822
Cavendish, *nat. ph.*	1731.	1810
Playfair, Sc. *nat. ph.*	1749.	1819
German.		
Fabricius, *phi.*	1668.	1736
F. Hoffmann, *med.*	1660.	1743
J. Bernoulli, *nat. ph.*	1668.	1748
Mosheim, *h.* and *th.*	1695.	1755
Haller, *p.* and *med.*	1708.	1776
Gessner, *phi.*	1691.	1761
Kleist, *p.*	1715.	1759
Winkelmann, *antiq.*	1718.	1768
Euler, *mat.*	1707.	1783
Gellert, *p.*	1715.	1769
Ruhnken, *phi.*	1723.	1798
Michaelis, *th.*	1717.	1791
Klopstock, *p.*	1724.	1803
Büsching, *geog.*	1725.	1793
Zimmermann, Swi. *miscel.* and *med.*	1728.	1795
Rammler, *p.*	1725.	1798
Lessing, *p.* and *ph.*	1729.	1781
Mendelsohn, *ph.*	1729.	1785
Wieland, *p.* and *ph.*	1733.	1813
Kant, *ph.*	1724.	1804
Lavater, Swi. *p.* and *th.*	1741.	1801
Herder, *ph.* and *th.*	1741.	1803
Bürger, *p.*	1748.	1794
S. Gessner, Swi. *p.*	1730.	1788
Schiller, *p.* and *h.*	1759.	1805
Adelung, *phi.*	1734.	1806
J Müller, Swi. *h.*	1752.	1809
Heyne, *phi.*	1729.	1812
Werner, *nat. ph.*	1750.	1817
J. H. Voss, *p.* and *phi.*	1751.	1826
Dutch.		
Vitringa, *th.*	1659.	1722
Boerhaave, *med.*	1668.	1738
Hemsterhuis, *phi.*	1685.	1766

Name.	Birth. A.D.	Death. A.D.
A. Schultens, *phi.*	1680.	1750
Gravesande, *nat. ph.*	1688.	1742
Oudendorp, *phi.*	1697.	1761
Wetstein, *th.*	1693.	1754
Lennep, *phi.*	1724.	1771
Valkenaer, *phi.*	1715.	1785
Hoogeveen, *phi.*	1712.	1794
Van Swieten, *med.*	1700.	1772
Wyttenbach, *phi.*	1747.	1820
Scandinavian.		
Peringskiold, Sw. *h.*	1654.	1720
Holberg, D. *p.* and *h.*	1685.	1754
Langebek, D. *h.*	1710.	1774
Linnæus, S. *nat. ph.*	1707.	1778
Dalin, Sw. *h.* and *p.*	1708.	1763
Pontoppidan, D. *h.*	1698.	1764
Lagerbring, Sw. *h.*	1707.	1788
Ihre, Sw. *phi.*	1707.	1780
Tullin, D. *p.*	1728.	1765
Suhm, D. *h.*	1728.	1798
Ewald, D. *p.*	1744.	1781

EMINENT PAINTERS.

ITALY.

Florentine School.

	Birth.	Death.
CIMABUE	1240.	1300
Giotto	1276.	1336
Massacio	1402.	1443
Fil. Lippi	1431.	1488
Leon. da Vinci	1445.	1520
Del Ghirlandajo	1449.	1493
M. Ang. Buonarotti	1474.	1564
B. Bandinelli	1487.	1559
A. del Sarto	1488.	1530
L. Cardi, or Civoli	1559.	1613
F. Vanni	1563.	1609
P. da Cortona	1596.	1669
Carlo Dolci	1616.	1686
Pom. Battoni	1702.	1786

Roman School.

A. Mantegna (*Padua*)	1431.	1505
P. Perugino	1446.	1524
Raphael Sanzio d'Urbino	1483.	1523
Giulio Romano	1492.	1546
F. Baroccio	1528.	1612
T. Zucchero	1529.	1566
F. Zucchero	1543.	1609
Bernini	1598.	1680
Claude Gélée of Lorraine	1600.	1680
Carlo Maratti	1625.	1713
P. Bianchi	1694.	1739

Venetian School.

G. Bellini	1421.	1501
Giorgione	1478.	1511
Tiziano	1477.	1576
Seb. del Piombo	1485.	1547
Il Bassano	1510.	1592
Il Tintoretto	1512.	1594
P. Veronese	1532.	1588
Seb. Ricci	1659.	1734
A. Canaletti	1787.	1763

Lombard and Bolognese School.

	Birth.	Death.
Il Correggio	1496.	1534
Il Parmigiano	1504.	1540
Il Caravaggio	1559.	1609
L. Caracci	1555.	1619
Aug. Caracci	1557.	1602
An. Caracci	1560.	1609
Guido	1575.	1642
A. Tiarini	1577.	1668
F. Albano	1578.	1660
Domenichino	1581.	1641
Guercino	1590.	1666
Il Bolognese	1606.	1680
Cignani	1628.	1719

Neapolitan School.

Stefani		1310
Fil. del Tesauro		1320
Master Simon		1348
Josephino	1560.	1640
M. Nuzzi di Fiori	1603.	1673
Il Calabrese	1613.	1699
Salvator Rosa	1615.	1673
L. Giordano	1631.	1705
Seb. Conca	1679.	1764

SPAIN.

Morales	1519.	1586
Vargas	1528.	1590
Spagnoletto	1589.	1656
Velasquez	1599.	1660
Murillo	1613.	1618
Coello		1693
Alfaro	1640.	1680

GERMANY.

Albert Dürer	1471.	1528
Hans Holbein	1498.	1554
Hoffmann	1598.	1640
P. van der Faes (sir P. Lely)	1618.	1680
Godfrey Kneller	1648.	1723

	Birth.	Death.
Huber	1668.	1748
Raphael Mengs	1728.	1779
NETHERLANDS.		
H. Goltzius	1520.	1583
H. van Eyk	1366.	1426
J. van Eyk	1370.	1441
F. Floris	1520.	1570
G. Venius	1556.	1664
P. P. Rubens	1577.	1640
J. Jordaens	1594.	1678
A. van Dyk	1599.	1641
D. Teniers, jun.	1610.	1694
F. Wouters	1614.	1659
C. Huysmans	1648.	1727
J. A. van der Liepe	1664.	1720
A. Breughel	1672.	
HOLLAND.		
Luke of Leyden	1494.	1533
A. Bloemaert	1564.	1647
C. Poelenburg	1586.	1660
P. Rembrandt van Ryn	1606.	1675
J. Terburg	1608.	1681
A. van Ostade	1610.	1685
G. Douw	1613.	1680
G. Metzu	1615.	1658
P. Wouvermans	1620.	1668
P. Potter	1625.	1654
Borgonone	1621.	1676
L Bakhuyzen	1631.	1699
J. Ruysdael	1635.	1681
F. Mieris	1635.	1681
A. van der Velde	1638.	1672
K. du Jardin	1640.	1678
J. Weeninx	1644.	1719
A. van der Werf	1659.	1722
J. van Huysum	1682.	1749

	Birth.	Death.
FRANCE.		
S. Vouet	1582.	1641
N. Poussin	1594.	1663
G. Poussin	1613.	1675
C. Lorraine (see *Roman School*).		
J. Blanchard	1600.	1638
S. Bourdon	1616.	1671
Le Sueur	1617.	1655
Le Brun	1619.	1690
La Fosse	1640.	1716
Jouvenet	1644.	1717
A. Watteau	1684.	1721
C. Vanloo	1705.	1765
Vernet	1712.	1786
Vien	1716.	1810
David	1750.	
ENGLAND.		
P. Oliver	1601.	1660
S. Cooper	1609.	1672
W. Dobson	1610.	1647
Richardson	1665.	1745
Thornhill	1676.	1732
Hogarth	1697.	1764
A. Ramsay	1709.	1785
R. Wilson	1713.	1782
J. Reynolds	1723.	1792
Gainsborough	1727.	1788
Romney	1734.	1802
Barry	1741.	1806
H. Fuseli	1741.	1825
Riley	1752.	1798
Opie	1761.	1807
Morland	1764.	1804
West (*American*)	1738.	1820
Lawrence	1769.	1830

INDEX.

A.

Abbas the Great, 374.
Abbasside Khalifs, the, 192.
Abercrombie, Sir Ralph, 480.
Aboo Beker, 169. 176.
Aboo Taleeb, 168.
Abraham, 18.
Achæans, 31. 91.
Addicti, 70.
Adolf, 144.
Adrian VI., Pope, 325.
Æthiopians, 7.
Africa, 178.
Agathocles, 85.
Agesilaus, 44.
Agrarian law, 71.
Aix-la-Chapelle, peace of, 403.
Alaric, 143.
Alcazar-quivir, battle of, 354.
Alcibiades, 42.
Alexander the Great, 49.
Alexander VI., Pope, 317.
Alexander of Russia, 435.
Alexandria, 50. 178.
Alexius of Constantinople, 254.
Alfonso X., the Wise, king of Castile, 307.
Alfonso of Portugal, 251.
Alfred of England, 206.
Ali, 173.
Aljubarrota, battle of, 310.
Allemanni, the, 157.
Alliance, the grand, 386.
Alliance, the quadruple, 393.
Almohades, the, 252.
Almoravides, 211.
Alp Arslan, 231.
Alva, Duke of, 347.
America, discovery of, 311. war, 411.
Amphictyonic Council, 48.
Amroo, 171.
Anastatius, 163.
Andrew III. of Hungary, 301.
Anglo-Saxons, the, 160.
Angora, battle of, 303. 306.
Anne, queen of England, 386.
Annibal, 87.
Antalcidas, peace of, 45.
Antiochus the Great, 89.
Antigonus Gonatus, 53.
Antonius, Marcus, 112.
Antoninus, Marcus Aurelius, 123.
Antoninus the Pious, 123.
Appius Claudius, 74.
Apulia, Duke of, 219.
Arabia, 17. 210. Khalifs of, 445.
Archon, creation of, 35.
Ardeshir, 167.
Aristides, 39.
Armenia, 57.
Arragon, Kings of, 445.
Arsacides, 60.
Artaxerxes I., 27.
Artaxerxes II., 28.
Asdrubal, 86.
Assassins, society of, 213. 261.
Assyria, 13.
Astolfo, 186.
Astyages, 25.
Athens, 35. 40. 45. 99.
Attila, 145.
Augsburg, recess of, 333.
Augustus, title of, 150.
Augustus (vid. Octavianus), 116.
Aurelian, successor to Claudius, 128.
Authar, king of the Lombards, 183.
Avitus, 148.
Ayesha, wife of Mohammed, 173
Azincourt, battle of, 294.

B.

Babylon, 13.
Bactria, 12.
Baliol of Scotland, 296.
Bannockburn, battle of, 297.
Basil I., dynasty of, 209.
Barcelona, Count of, 216.
Battle of Marathon, 26. 38.
Cunaxa, 28.
Platæa, 40.
Leuctra, 46.
Mantinea, *ib.*
Chæronea, 49. 99.
Granicus, 50.
Issus and Arbela, *ib.*
Ipsus, 53.

Battle of Allia, 78.
Ægatian Islands, 86
Trebia, 87.
Trasimene, *ib.*
Cannæ, *ib.*
Pharsalia, 110.
Philippi, 114.
Actium, 115.
Chalons, 146.
Zülpich, 157.
Beder, 171.
Cadesia, 176.
Xeres, 180.
Tours, 182.
Fontenoy, 196. 402.
Hastings, 207.
Legnano, 240.
Evesham, 249.
Navas de Tolosa, 251.
Ourique, *ib.*
Wollstadt, 261.
Meloria, 268.
Morgarten, 276.
Bosworth, 288.
Crecy, 291.
Poitiers, *ib.*
Azincourt, 294.
Bannockburn, 297.
Nicopolis, 303.
Varna, 304.
Belgrade, 305.
Angora, 306.
Navarrete, 308.
Aljubarrota, 310.
Marignano, 325.
Pavia, 326.
Cerisoles, 330.
Flodden, 334.
Mohacs, 338.
St. Quintin, 340.
Jarnac, 342.
Coutras, 344.
Ivry, *ib.*
Alcazar-quivir, 354.
Breitenfeld, 361. 364.
Lützen, 361. 436.
Nordlingen, 362. 365.
Naseby, 372.
Seneffe, 379.
Boyne, 384.
Aughrim, *ib.*
Blenheim, 387.
Ramillies, *ib.*
Almanza, 388.
Malplaquet, 389.
Narva, 391.
Pultowa, 392.
Dettingen, 401.
Fontenoy, 402.
Culloden, 404.
Minden, 407.
Neer Winden, 424.
Lodi, 426.
Rivoli, *ib.*
Battle of Marengo, 429.
Hohenlinden, 430.
Trafalgar, 431.
Austerlitz, *ib.*
Jena, 432.
Friedland, *ib.*
Vimeiro, 433.
Aspern, *ib.*
Wagram, *ib.*
Talavera, 434.
Albuera, 435.
Salamanca, *ib.*
Borodino, *ib.*
Leipzig, 436.
Vittoria, *ib.*
Waterloo, 437.
Becket, Thomas à, 247.
Beder, battle of, 171.
Belgrade, battle of, 305.
Belisarius, 154—164.
Benedict XI., 263.
Bithynia, 55.
Blenheim, battle of, 387.
Bonaparte, Napoleon, 426.
Bonaparte, Joseph and Louis, 431.
Bonaparte, Jerome, 432.
Boniface VIII., Pope, 262.
Bretigni, peace of, 292.
Brissot, 423.
Britain, 107. 121.
Bruce, Robert, 297.
Brutus, 112.
Burgundians, 156.
Burgundy, Duke of, 278.
Byzantine empire, 161.

C.

Cæpio, 97.
Calmar, union of, 300.
Cambray, league of, 318.
Cambray, peace of, 328.
Cambyses, 26.
Camillus, 77.
Campo Formio, peace of, 427.
Canute (Knut), 206.
Caracalla, 125.
Carinus, 129.
Carthage, 61. 85. 91.
Carus, 129.
Cassander, 52.
Cassius, Spurius, 71.
Cassius and Brutus, 112.
Castile, Kings of, 445.
Catiline, 105.
Catherine I. of Russia, 392.
Catherine II., 409.
Cato, 105.
Caius Caligula, 118.
Cæsar, 105. 108. 112.
Cæsar, title of, 130.
Chaldeans, 14.
Chalons, battle of, 146.
Charlemagne, 185.

Charles Martel, 182.
Charles I. of England, 370.
Charles II. of England, 375.
Charles Edward, the Pretender, 404.
Charles V. and VI. of France, 280. 292.
Charles VII. of France, 281.
Charles VIII. of France, 283.
Charles IX. of France, 342.
Charles of Anjou, 271.
Charles III. of Hungary, 372.
Charles II. of Naples, 271.
Charles XII. of Sweden, 390.
Château Cambresis, peace of, 340.
China, 8. Dynasties of, 448.
Chingis Khan, 260.
Christ, 117.
Christian II. of Denmark, 387.
Christianity, corruption of, 133.
Cicero, M. Tullius, 105. 113.
Cimbri, 96.
Cincinnatus, 75.
Clarendon, constitutions of, 247.
Claudius, Emperor, 118.
Clement III., Pope, 256.
Clement V., Pope, 263.
Clement VII., Pope, 327. 336.
Clement XIII. and XIV., Popes, 409.
Cleopatra, 61. 111. 115.
Clinton, Sir Henry, 413.
Clive, Colonel, 417.
Clusium, battle of, 86.
Coligni, 341.
Columbus, Christopher, 311.
Commodus, 124.
Conon, 44.
Conrad of Swabia, 242.
Constantine the Great, 132.
Constantine II., 136.
Constantinople, 183. 191. 208. 220. 254.
Constantius, 131.
Contras, battle of, 344.
Crassus, 60. 105.
Crecy, battle of, 291.
Crespi, peace of, 350.
Critolaus, 91.
Crœsus, 25.
Cromwell, 375.
Crusades, 233. 255.
Cyrus, 25.

D.

Dandolo, Henry, doge of Venice, 270.
Danes, or Northmen, 200. 206.
Darius Hystaspes, 26.
Darius Codomanus, 28. 50.
David, 21.
David, son of Robert Bruce, 298.
Daza, 131.
Decemvirs, 72.
Decius, 82.
Decius, successor of Philip, 127.
Dejoces, 24.
Demetrius, 52.
Denmark, 199. 300. 337. Kings of, 446.
Demosthenes, 42.
Dermot, M'Murrough, 250.
Dettingen, battle of, 401.
Dictatorship, 69.
Dido, 61.
Diocletian, 130.
Dionysius of Syracuse, 62. 84.
Domitian, 121.
Domnina, 141.
Dorian migration, 32
Draco, 36.
Duillius, 85.
Dumouriez, 424.

E.

Earth, 1.
East, the, Emperors of, 444.
East-Goths, 152.
Edward I. of England, 293. 296.
Edward II. and III. of England, 279. 284. 290.
Edward IV. of England, 287.
Edward V. of England, 288.
Edward VI. of England, 334.
Egbert of England, 206.
Egypt, 14. 60. 177. Kings of, 442.
Elagabalus, 126.
Elizabeth of England, 340. 348.
Emperors of Rome, 116. 119. 122.
England, 185. 191. 206. 227. 247. 283. 289. 334. 352. 370. 375. 384. 392. 404. Kings of, 447.
Epaminondas, 46.
Ephori, 34.
Ephesus, 162.
Europe, 313. 420.

F.

Fabian gens, 76.
Ferdinand I. of Aragon, 309.
Feudal system, 189.
Flavian family, 120.
Flodden, battle of, 334.
Florence, 267.
France, 181. 201. 226. 245. 277. 289. 315. 340. 366. Kings of, 447.
Francis I., 324. 330.
Francis II. of France, 340.
Franconia, house of, 225.
Franks, the, 157. 189.
Frederic I. (Barbarossa), 242. 256.
Frederic II. of Germany, 243.
Frederic, elector of Saxony, 324.
Frederic II. of Prussia, 398.
French Revolution, 423.
Fronde, the, 374.
Fulvia, wife of Antonius, 113.

G.

Gage, General, 412.
Galba, 119.
Gallienus, 128.
Gasnevides, 215.
Gauls, 77. 86.
Genoa, 268.
Germany, 184. 202. 225. 241. 273. 316. 328. 331. 355. 359. Emperors of, 448.
Gonderic, 145.
Godfrey of Bouillon, 235.
Gondebald, 156.
Gordian III., 127.
Gorm the old, 199.
Goths, 141.
Gotho-Germans, 152.
Gracchus, 94.
Granada, conquest of, 309.
Greece, 29. 31. 54. 91.
Gregory I., Pope, 183.
Gregory II., Pope, 184.
Gregory VII., Pope, 222. 226.
Guelfs and Ghibilines, 267.
Guise, Duke of, 341.
Gustavus Adolphus, 360.
Gustavus Vasa, 337.
Gustavus III., 421.

H.

Hadrian, 123.
Hardicanute, 207.
Harmodius and Aristogeiton, 37.
Harold, 207.
Harold, Fair-hair, 199.
Haroon-er-Rasheed, 194.
Henry I. of England, 228.
Henry II. of England, 245. 250.
Henry III. of England, 249.
Henry IV. of England, 285. 293.
Henry V. and VI. of England, 286. 293.
Henry VII. of England, 315.
Henry VIII. of England, 322. 325. 334.
Henry II. of France, 333. 340.
Henry III. of France, 343.
Henry IV. of France, 344.
Henry I. (the Fowler) of Germany, 202.
Henry II. and III. of Germany, 225.
Henry IV. of Germany, 222. 226.
Henry V. of Germany, 226.
Henry VI. of Germany, 243.
Henry VII. of Germany, 274.
Heraclius, 165.
Hernicians, 71.
Herod, 59.
Heruli, the, 149.
Hildebrand, Archdeacon of Rome, 222.
Hippias and Hipparchus, 37.
Hippodrome, blue and green factions of, 162.
Holland, 372.
Holy war, 48.
Honorius, 143.
Howe, General, 412.
Hungary, 301.
Hungarians, the, 198.
Hunneric, 145.
Huns, the, 140.
Huss, the Reformer, 266.
Hyder Ali, 418.

I.

Illyrians, 86.
India, 10. 415.
India, discovery of passage to, 312.
Innocent III., Pope, 236.
Ireland, 250. 428.
Ireland, Union of, 429.
Ismail, 321.
Israel, 18. Kings of, 441.
Italians, 98.
Italy, 185. 204. 217. 221. 225. 235. 240. 262. 267. 270. 317. 333. 357. 369.
Judah, Kings of, 441.
Ivry, battle of, 344.

J.

James VI. of Scotland, 370.
James II. of England, 381.
Janus, temple of, 116.
Jarnac, battle of, 342.
Jason of Pheræ, 47.
Jerome of Prague, 266.
Jerusalem, 165.
Jesus Christ, 117.
Jesuits, 408.
Jews, 120. 171.
Joan of Arc, 295.
Joanna I. and II. of Naples, 272.
John of England, 248.
John XXII., Pope, 264.
John III., Don, of Portugal, 335.
Judea, 58. Kings of, 442.
Jugurtha, 96.
Julian, 137.
Julius II., Pope, 318.
Justin, 163.
Justin II., 164.
Justinian, 163.

K.

Kelts, 77.
Kerreem Khan of Persia, 419.
Khadijah, wife to Mohammed, 168.
Khaled, 171.
Khalifs, 173.
Khalifat at Bagdad, 261.
Khosroo, 168.
Knights at Rome, 97.
Koran, 170.

L.

Laconia, 33.
La Fayette, 424.
Latins, 82.
Leo IX., Pope, 218. 224.
Leo X., Pope, 323.
Leonidas, 39.
Lepidus, 113.
Licinius, 79.
Ligurians, 86.
Lothair, 196.
Lothair II., 197.
Lombards, 155. 183. 225.
Louis VII. of France, 245. 256.
Louis VIII. of France, 246.
Louis IX. of France, *ib.*
Louis X. of France, 278.
Louis XI. of France, 281. 316.
Louis XII. of France, 316. 318. 324.
Louis XIII. of France, 366.
Louis XIV. of France, 374. 390.
Louis XVI. of France, 420.
Louis XVIII. of France, 437.
Lucullus, 104.
Luther, Dr. Martin, 323.
Liutprand, 186.
Lützen, battle of, 361. 436.
Lycurgus, 33.
Lysimachus, 55.

M.

Macbeth, 295.
Maccabees, 59.
Macedonian war, 88.
Macedon, 53. 89. Kings of, 441.
Macrinus, 125.
Mælius, Spurius, 74.
Magna Charta, 248.
Majorianus, 148.
Mahmood of Ghizni, 215.
Mamelukes, 254.
Man, 3.
Manfred, 270.
Manlius, 79.
Marcian, 163.
Maria Theresa, 398.
Marius, 99.
Marlborough, Earl of, 386.
Mary of England, 334. 352.
Mary of Scotland, 340
Matthias, 391.
Maxentius, 131.
Maurice, 165.
Maurice, successor to the Prince of Orange, 349.
Maximianus, Herculius, 130.
Maximilian of Germany, 316.
Maximilian II., 355.
Medes, 23.
Melancthon, 329.
Metellus, 97.
Miltiades, 39.
Mithridates VII., 98.
Mohammed, 168. 173.
Mongols, 260.
Moorad (Amurath), 303.
Moore, Sir John, 433.
Morisoocs, expulsion of, 368.
Moses, 18.
Motassem, Khalif, 214.

N.

Nadir Shah, 397.
Naples, 270. Kings of, 445.
Narva, battle of, 308.
Navarrete, battle of, 308.
Navas de Tolosa, battle of, 251.
Nebuchadnezzar, 13.
Necker, minister of Louis XVI., 423.
Nelson, Admiral, 428.
Nero, Domitius, 119.
Nerva, 122.
Netherlands, 346.
Nexi, 70.
Ney, Marshal, 434.
Nicholas, Pope, 219.
Nicholas III., Pope, 271.
Nicopolis, battle of, 303.
Nimeguen, peace of, 380.
Normans, 217.
Northmen, or Danes, 199. 206.
Numerian, 129.

O.

Octavius, consul, 100.
Octavianus, 113.
Odoacer, 149. 153.
Ofella, 102.
Omar, Khalif, 173.
Ommiyades, the, 179. 193.
Opimius, 95.
Orchan, 302.
Orleans, Duke of, 280.
O'Ruare of Breffney, 250.
Othman, Khalif, 173.
Otho, emperor of Rome, 119.
Otho I., II., III. of Germany, 204.
Ottomans, the, 302. Emperors of, 448.
Ourique, battle of, 251.

P.

Papal power, 217. 235. 262.
Parthia, 59.
Paulus Æmilius, 89.
Paul III., Pope, 330.
Pavia, battle of, 326.
Peace of Antalcidas, 45.
Verdun, 196.
Constance, 241.
Bretigni, 292.

Peace of Cambray, 328.
Crespi, 330.
Passau, 333.
Cateau Cambresis, 340.
Westphalia, 365.
Breda, 377.
Aix-la-Chapelle, 377. 403.
Nimeguen, 380.
Utrecht, 390.
Vienna, 395.
Carlowitz, 396.
Paris, 403—417.
Campo Formio, 427.
Luneville, 430.
Amiens, *ib.*
Tilsit, 432.
Pedro of Portugal, 310.
Pelistratus, 37.
Pelopidas, 46.
Peloponnesian war, 41.
Pembroke, Earl of, surnamed Strongbow, 250.
Peninsular war, 434.
Perdiccas, 51.
Pergamus, Kings of, 442.
Pericles, 41.
Persia, 38. 166. 176. 252. 320. 373. 397. Kings of, 441.
Persians, 23.
Peter the Cruel, 307.
Peter the Great, 391.
Peter the Hermit, 233.
Philip of Macedon, 47.
Philip II. of France, 245. 257.
Philip III., the Bold, 277.
Philip IV., the Fair, *ib.*
Philip, successor to Gordian III., 127.
Philip II. of Spain, 339.
Philip III. and IV. of Spain, 368.
Philistines, 17.
Phœnicians, 16.
Pharsalia, battle of, 110.
Pisa, 268.
Plancus, 113.
Plantagenets, the, 247. 283.
Poland, 300. 316. 355. 409. Kings of, 446.
Pompeius, Cneius, 101. 103.
Pontus, 56.
Popes, the, 221. 235. 262.
Popish plot, 381.
Porsenna, 67.
Portugal, 251. 319. 334. 353. 369. Kings of, 445.
Pragmatic sanction, 395.
Probus, 129.
Protestants, origin of, 328.
Prussia, Kings of, 448.
Ptolemy, 60.
Ptolemy II. and III., 61.
Publilius Philo, 83.
Punic war, I., 81. II., 86. III., 90.
Pyrenees, peace of, 375.
Pyrrhus, 83.

R.

Raymond of Toulouse, 234. 246.
Reformation, 323.
Regulus, 85.
Republics, Italian, 267.
Revolution, English, 382.
Richard I. of England, 247. 257.
Richard II. of England, 285. 292. 298.
Richard III. of England, 288.
Richelieu, Cardinal, 366.
Robert, son of William the Conqueror, 228.
Robert III. of Scotland, 298.
Robespierre, 424.
Rodolf of Habsburg, 273.
Rogations, the Licinian, 79.
Rome, 63. 75. 84. 93. 116. 130. 136. 143. 149. Kings, Emperors, Bishops, and Popes of, 442.
Russia, 207. 316. 373. 396. 404. Tsars of, 442.
Rychouse plot, 381.

S.

Sabellian race, 98.
Saladin, 243. 253. 257.
Samnite war, 81.
Samuel, 21.
Sassanian Kings, 441.
Saul, *ib.*
Savoy, 316. 358.
Scandinavia, 299. 316.
Scipio, 87.
Scotland, 295. Kings of, 447.
Seleucus, 57.
Selim I. of Turkey, 319.
Selim II. of Turkey, 358.
Selim III. of Turkey, 422. 434.
Seljookians, 230.
Sertorius, 102.
Servius Tullius, 65.
Severus, Alexander, 126.
Severus, Septimius, 125.
Shahpoor, King of Persia, 139.
Sheeahs and Soonees, 174.
Sicily, 270. Kings of, 445.
Sigmund, 156.
Sigismund, king of Hungary, 274 301. 303.
Silesian war, 398.
Simon de Montfort, 249.
Solomon, 22.
Solon, 36.
Spain, 92. 180. 229. 251. 307. 319. 334. 368. Kings of, 445.
Sparta, 33. 44.
Spartacus, 103.
Spurius Mœlius, 74.

Stephen, king of England, 229.
Stolo, C. Licinius, 79.
Suffhvee, 320. House of, 441.
Sulciman, 328. 350. 338.
Sulla, 99.
Sultan, title of, 215.
Suvaroff, 421.
Switzerland, 275. 316.
Sweden, 299. 357. Kings of, 416.
Syracuse, 84.
Syria, 57. 174. Kings of, 442.
Syrian wars, 88.

T.

Tacitus, 129.
Tadmor, 22.
Tarik, 181.
Tarquin, 68.
Tarquinius, 65.
Tatars, 305.
Templars, 235.
Test act, 381.
Thebes, 45.
Themistocles, 39.
Theoderic, 152.
Theodosius, 142.
Theodosius II., 162.
Thermopylæ, 39.
Thetes, the, 57.
Thrace, 55.
Tiberius, successor to Augustus, 117.
Tiberius, successor to Justin II., 165.
Timoor, 305.
Tippoo, son to Hyder Ali, 418.
Titus, son to Vespasian, 120.
Tooloon, 214.
Toghrul Beg, 230.
Totila, 154.
Trajan, 122.
Tribunate at Rome, 71.
Triumvirate, 113.
Turkey, 319. 338. 358. 373. 410.
Tuscans, 67.

U.

Umbrian race, 98.
Urban II., 233.
Urban VI., 264.
Utrecht, peace of, 390.

V.

Valens, 139.
Valentinian III., 145.
Valerian, 128.
Varna, battle of, 304.
Vasa, Gustavus, of Sweden, 357.
Veii, 76.
Venice, 269.
Verdun, treaty of, 196.
Vervins, treaty of, 346.
Vespasian, 120.
Virginia and Virginius, 74.
Viriatus, 92.
Vitellius, 120.
Vortigern, 160.

W.

Wales, union of, 283.
Wallace, William, 296.
Washington, General, 412.
Waterloo, battle of, 437.
Wellington, Lord, 434.
West-Goths in Spain, 161.
Westphalia, peace of, 365.
Wickliffe, the Reformer, 266. 315. 324.
William I., or Conqueror, 227.
William II. of England, 228.
William III. of England, 382.
William of Sicily, 241.
Winfred, bishop of Mentz, 184.

X.

Xanthippus, 89.
Xerxes, 27.

Y.

Yacoob-ben-Leis, 211.
Yezdejird, 167.

Z.

Zeno, 152.
Zuinglius, the Reformer, 324.

THE END.

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